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ABSTRACT

The booklet, part of a series which examines actual and potential contributions of psychology toward solving problems of the world's schools, contains articles written by school psychologists from the United States, Europe, Latin America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Taiwan. The document was compiled in response to a need for international perspectives on practical psychology which was expressed at the First International Colloquium in School Psychology, held in Munich, Germany, July 22-26, 1975. The major purpose of the series is to increase communication among school psychologists and psychologists-in-training in developing and developed nations so that they may be made aware of new ways of applying psychology to school-related problems. Most of the articles describe: (1) the application of psychology in the schools of the author's country, (2) the historical roots out of which this service evolved, (3) how psychologists are trained and how they currently function in schools, and (4) prediction of trends within school psychology in the near future. Topics discussed include: nature of specific groups which demand the most counseling, parental, and community involvement; the relationship between school psychologists and teachers; and difficulties in diagnosing children suffering from intellectual or educational problems. Notes on contributors and a chart summarizing school psychology information by country are included. (Author/DB)

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PSYCHOLOGY
IN THE SCHOOLS

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INTERNATIONAL
PERSPECTIVE
- Vol. 1

Calvin D. Catterall, Ph.D.
EDITOR

Chairman, International School Psychology Steering Committee

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FORWARD

It will take a *world of understanding* to help psychology to make its rightful contribution to the educational problems of the world's schools. This book and this series represent one small part of a much larger program of the International School Psychology Committee to improve international communication and to make a contribution to that *world of understanding*.

The need for PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE was initially expressed in connection with the First International Colloquium in School Psychology which took place in Munich, Germany from July 22-26, 1975. That meeting represented the first attempt to bring together school psychologists to discuss applications of psychological principles to the learning and behavior problems found in schools all over the world. Although it was soon evident that resources allocated to psychological services in the schools varied considerably in different countries, most of the basic educational problems appear to be essentially the same. As a result of modern communication networks, wide discrepancies in the conceptualization of how school psychological services should be provided, however, were not found.

The Colloquium was organized to open up meaningful, one-to-one communication rather than to try to identify any one system of delivering psychological services to the schools which might be judged to be better than others. It was conceptualized on the assumption that if school psychology is to grow and make its proper contribution, each of us must learn to share what we know, while at the same time being open to information available from others. Clearly all of the answers are not to be found in any one setting. Rather than to try to put out a formal proceedings, the decision was made to approach practicing school psychologists from various parts of the world and ask them to describe:

> The application of psychology in the schools of their country,
> The historical roots out of which this service evolved,
> How Psychologists are trained and how they currently function,
> And what the trend appeared to be within the next few years.

Although many of the contributors to this Volume were at the Colloquium, this series seeks to extend the communication at the International meeting rather than attempting to recapitulate it.

Forward

This series is a part of a major effort to help both practicing school psychologists and students in training all over the world to begin to appreciate their profession in its true international perspective. In our intense desire to be helpful it is easy to fall into the trap of thinking that the way one is doing something is the only way to do it and that there really are no solutions to the knotty problems we face. Looking at these role functions and at these problems through the additional international dimension of how others work and solve these same problems should be very helpful. This is especially true as we come to realize that many of the problems that we face are either caused by or sorely aggravated by the way we put society and our schools together.

Every culture is faced with the problem of educating its young in some reasonably systematic way. The economic stages of development of different countries will vary as will the need for an educational system. Even more pressing are the individual differences in students as they face the task of learning. It is critically important to look at societal needs and to examine how economic and human resources are put together to make the best possible educational system with a given setting.

At one time the use of psychologists in the schools was restricted primarily to a few wealthy countries. World economic patterns and resources are shifting; once rich nations are discovering that they have fewer resources to bring to bear on their pressing problems. Previously poor nations are finding sources of new-found wealth. This series of books is designed to help all countries of the world look at new ways of applying increasingly powerful technologies in psychology to the solution of school-related problems. No country's progam is complete; we all have made and continue to make mistakes. Every country has its "growing edge" in terms of how to use psychology to make its educational program better. These books, therefore, are intended to expose a worldwide audience to the multiplicity of ways of improving their educational program through the intelligent use of psychologists in the schools.

It is the purpose of this series to bring before the reader as wide a spectrum of ways of utilizing psychologists in the schools as is possible. To choose "the best" programs would require some sort of a measuring device; it would require certain assumptions about how one program is best for different kinds of educational systems in different kinds of cultures. It is unquestionably too early in the process of international communication in our profession to move to these types of value judgements.

In addition to simply getting an international perspective to the profession, it is also hoped that the reader will find some practical suggestions of ways of improving both the current functioning and the future direction of school psychology in their country. Obviously all of the ideas are not practical within a given setting; hopefully each thoughtful reader will find some that they can apply in their work. It should be remembered that school systems, as basic social institutions, will often be more willing to try out something new if it has been found to be successful somewhere else.

Because the inspiration for this project came out of the First Colloquium, it seemed appropriate to start with Wolfgang Arnhold's description of school psychology in Western Germany. His paper served as the opening, key-note address at the Colloquium and in many ways established a pattern which was to be followed by many of the other authors. From there we look at the program in nearby Austria, written by their renouned Lotte Schenk-Danzinger. In this instance the historical motivation for starting the program came out of the need for reparation after the war.

A relatively large section of the book has been allocated to the Scandanavian countires, both because they are well organized and easy to communicate with and because many people feel that this is the part of the world where school psychology is most highly developed. Anders Poulsen was a logical person to ask to describe the work in Denmark because of his: undisputed leadership in international school psychology, his efforts to make the First Colloquium a success, and his willingness to be the catalytic agent to help organize the Second International Colloquium. Anna-Lisa Mellden, from her position of extremely capable leadership in school psychology in Sweden, was a natural person to present the picture for that country. Hans Henry Sollien, past Chairman of the School Psychology Division of the Norwegian Psychological Association, has done an expert job of quickly summarizing the state of the art in that country. The European picture is filled in by a quick trip across the Channel to Great Britain where Ludwig Lowenstein, who is German born, US raised, Australian trained, but who has spent most of his professional life as a psychologist in Britain, describes the role of the educational psychologist there.

But if psychology is to make its proper contribution to all of the educational systems in the world, it must learn to function in settings more characterized by development and change. It is in countries such as this where social problems tend to be more dramatic, where social institutions are in many ways less well developed, and where useful ideas, if properly nurtured, have more potential for growth and fullfillment. Ruben Ardila, unquestionably one of the most widely recognized psychologists in Central and South America, presents a clear and incisive statement about how educational psychology has developed and prospered throughout the whole of Latin America. Among the many things that other parts of the world can learn from this work is the application of psychology to the counseling and guidance of older students. Although Latin America represents a larger geographical and political segment of the world than has been described elsewhere, it does present a natural backdrop for a discussion of the educational challenges in Colombia. It is also hoped that other Central and South American countries will be represented in subsequent volumes of this work. Interestingly enough, Gerardo Suarez, in describing the educational problems and promises of his native Colombia, feels that the immediate future of school psychology in his country shows greater promise in Non-Formal Education than it would if it focused primarily on the "educational elite" who are in currently in the schools. The success or failure of this approach should be of major interest to psychologists in the many parts of the world where there are still large numbers of unschooled people. Those who are interested in the international thrust of our profession must continually attempt to sort out those ideas that are "nice to know" from those which are viable for being transferred into another setting.

Turning to North America, we have two contributions from the rapidly expanding programs in Canada. Henry Janzen has taken on the difficult task of describing the utilization of school psychology in the divergent

English speaking Provinces in Canada. As was true in South America, the struggle to summarize widely different methods of application of psychology and widely different levels of development reminds us that any attempt to describe this process in any country, no matter how homogenous, is extremely difficult. At best the results have to be some interesting mixture of the "facts" filtered through the perceptions, and experiences, and impressions of the writer. The segment on school psychology in English-speaking Canada is followed by a shorter statement by Gaston Gauthier on the system in Quebec and French-speaking Canada. As he did at the First Colloquium, he makes a strong argument for school psychology to move into an eco-psychological approach if it is to ever make its rightful contribution to education.

To heighten the contrast, the next two Chapters come from "down under". New Zealand, which is reasonably small and generally centralized in its application of psychology to its educational problems, is beautifully described by Rodney Sinclair, Chief Educational Psychologist for that country. Even here, however, they have minority groups who have only partially been assimilated into the predominant cultural pattern, a problem that faces most of the educational programs of the world. Although related in some ways geographically, nearby Australia presents quite different cultural patterns and different educational problems. Mary Nixon, a highly respected Educational Psychologist at Monash University, does an admirable job of summarizing the growth of the profession there and gives us all food for thought about some possible avenues for future research. In a profession essentially dedicated to the pressing problems of the present, the place and direction of research in school psychology often presents an interesting dimension of difference.

In one sense of the word, Michael Berthold's Chapter on school psychology in the American Overseas Dependent Schools reflects a predominantly American school system. At the same time it serves as a transitional Chapter with those that follow on Taiwan and Pakistan. His work provides a particularly insightful description of the problems in the communities and schools filled by what would appear to be largely displaced military people. Perhaps some of this work can serve to help psychologists facing other groups of displaced people or other groups of military people in other parts of the world.

Taiwan's programs, described by one of its leading psychologists, Wei-fan Kuo, portray a country that is working very hard to solve the enormous problems of large populations and increasing lengths of compulsorary education. The reader will find his description of "Mr. Chang's Psychological Service" extremely interesting. This is a large scale effort to train and utilize volunteer college students majoring in psychology, educational psychology, education, or social work to offer free counseling to primary school and secondary school students with adjustment problems. In the continuing need to find the manpower to help meet individual needs throughout the world, this systematic use of the volunteer movement would be well to examine in many other countries.

The last chapter is a very brief description of the development and increasing utilization of applied psychology in Pakistan. Although its author, M. Sadiq Shaikh, was born in Pakistan, he is currently working in Nigeria. His chapter illustrates the generalization that can be seen in those countries where the major thrusts of psychology are just beginning to be felt; people are not in a position to worry about whether or not a job is done by a clinical psychologist or a school psychologist. Perhaps countries throughout the world where this is true will be able to avoid some of the conflicts over "territoriality" which have characterized so many parts of the world.

Thus it can be seen that not only do the countries described in Volume 1 vary, so do their approach to the use of psychological services. The psychologists describing psychological services in the schools are all highly recognized, practicing school psychologists. Many of them have demonstrated high levels of professional leadership in the Psychological Organizations in their country. Some of them have turned their attentions and skills to the problems of training future psychologists, feeling that the major need of the profession can best be met through improved preservice education. Most of these people have had and continue to have ample opportunity to work on the practical problems of application of school psychology in the local setting. The section entitled About the Contributors will give the reader information about the background of these authors so that those who use the book will know something about the "perceptual filters" which have been in operation in its process of development.

In reading this Volume one can find major similarities as well as major differences. It might be well to read it twice to focus on these two dimensions. The similarities will bring out the broad cultural needs faced by most cultures of the world as well as the broad professional field which has come to be "school psychology". The differences in the way schools are organized and in ways psychologists have developed skills to meet identified needs should provide the careful reader with much food for thought about ways they can help to improve the educational system. Rather than selecting contributors or countries that are either similar or different, however, the attempt has been made to provide information about the application of psychological principles in the schools in a variety of settings. The Summary Charts which follow should help the reader find those similarities and differences along dimensions that are important to them and to their work. It is anticipated that future Volumes of this work will continue the use of this chart so that it will become as authoritative and comprehensive a picture of psychology in the schools throughout the world as is possible.

It is sincerely hoped that this book will help the reader gain a new, larger dimension of school psychology and that it does, indeed contribute to a *world of understanding*. We all owe a dept of gratitude to those who have contributed their time to make it possible. If you want to contribute to the promotion of international understanding in this profession, please write; we need your help.

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ABOUT THE EDITOR

Dr. Catterall was raised and educated in California. He served in various local school districts for approximately 22 years, first as a School Psychologist and later in various capacities of administration. He received his PhD from the University of Southern California in 1964. He has always been active in Professional School Psychologists' Organizations and served twice as the President of the Califoria Association of School Psychologists and Psychometrists. Later he also served as the President of the National Association of School Psychologists. He was one of the initiators of the International School Psychology Committee, which started out as a joint Committee between NASP and Division 16, the School Psychology Division of the American Psychological Association. He was the Convener and largely responsible for the First International Colloquium in School Psychology and was appointed as the head of the International Steering Committee in School Psychology that was developed at that time. He also serves as the Editor of the ISP Newsletter, WORLD-GO-ROUND. He has traveled extensively in the name of International School Psychology; he is the Director of a national and international network of Consultants to education called Staff Development Consultants. His wife, Gretchen, has provided a great deal of editorial and secretarial services to make all of these projects possible. Another book, *Strategies for Helping Students*, which is being co-authored with George Gazda is soon to be released from Charles C. Thomas, Publisher.

SUMMARY CHART FOR PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS - -

Country/Area & Reference	Historical Development	Psycholog. Personnel	Mininumum Training for Psychological Personnel	Number Employed
AMERICAN DEPENDENT SCHOOLS OVERSEAS, School Psychology In. Berthold, M.C. Vol. 1 pp. 217-243	Closely followed the trends set in the United States. Started after World War II. Some concern over drugs.	School Psychologists	All trained in the various parts of the United States. Great difficulty in getting in-service training.	DOD Schools: Europe 11 Pacific Area 11 1:2,500 EARCOS 5 1:4,000
AUSTRALIA, Educational Psychology In. Nixon, M. C. Vol. 1 pp. 205-216	1922--1st Psychol. in schools. Selecting, Assessing, and Placing in Special Schools. Guidance & Counseling. Emphasis on group testing.	Counsellors, Educational Psychologists, Guidance officers (No marked distintion between the different roles).	Three to four years undergraduate degree in psychol. plus (in most cases) teacher training and experience. Recently, advanced specialist training programs in psychol. and education have been established.	Approximately 1,000.
AUSTRIA, School Psychology In. Schenk-Danzinger, L. Vol. 1 pp. 38-47	1948--1st School Psychol. Services. Reparation of war problems. Early work with emotional disturbance, behavior, & learning problems in Grammar School students.	School Counselors	Teacher training plus additional coursework.	
		School Psychologists	Full academic training and degree in psychology.	61

- - IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (Continued)

Current Utilization of Psychologically Trained Personnel	Future Trends
Asked to fulfill a variety of non-traditional jobs because they are working in isolation. Some service to handicapped children. Try to meet a variety of needs associated with the unique status and location of the schools around the world. Routine psychological testing and consultation for the elementary school. Student counseling and parent guidance at the secondary level.	Reduction in numbers as military reduced. Some shifting to other locales. Broadening of their function.
Testing, advising, and placing students into the most suitable educational programs (based largely on their level of ability). Helping students make appropriate career choices. Identification and placement in special eduction. Moving toward working with others to bring about careful task analysis and to identify appropriate corrective procedures. Movement toward "agent of change", "consultant", and role of "innovator". More emphasis on group process.	Research: 1. Symbolic manipulation. 2. Environment and human performance. 3. How individuals and groups differ. 4. Interpersonal behavior & group interaction.
Counsel with students from continuation schools at night. Counsel with Grammar School students in their schools. - Compulsory examinations for special education placement. School readiness examinations. Learning and behavior problems. Advise school on system-wide problems.	Counselors being replaced by Psychol. Improved University training. Group dynamics.

SUMMARY CHART FOR PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS - -

Country/Area & Reference	Historical Development	Psycholog. Personnel	Mininumum Training for Psychological Personnel	Number Employed
BRITAIN, School Psychological Service In. Lowenstein, L. F. Vol. 1 pp. 102-125	1913--1st Educational Psychol., Sir Cyril Burt, in London. Identify the maladjusted, subnormal, & backward children. Early emphasis on Child Guidance Clinic. Psycholog. Service soon independent (under Education Service).	Assistant Psychol. (Trainee) Education. Psychol. (each area has Principal or Senior Educat. Psychol.)	Honors degree in Psychology. Teacher training and experience. (Trainee may lack one) Two years of intensive postgraduate training leading to the MSc or Dip Ed Psych degree.	750 in England and Wales 215 fulltime and 20 parttime in Scotland.
CANADA, English Speaking, Psychology In The Schools. Janzen, H.L. Vol. 1 pp. 163-183	Prior to the war: Attendance Officers & Visiting Teachers. After the War (early 1950's)- School Psychol. Early emphasis on Guidance and Counseling.	School Psychologists	All Provinces require MA except Manitoba (which requires a PhD). Three PhD programs: University of Toronto, Ontario Institute of Studies in Educat., and the University of Alberta. Training tends to be broader than traditional school psychology; often incorporates Counseling skills. Teacher training and experience typically required.	Approx. Numbers: Ontario 225 British Columb. 125 Manitoba 50-75 Saskat. 50 Eastern Provin. 50-75

- - IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (Continued)

Current Utilization of Psychologically Trained Personnel	Future Trends
Advising teachers on individual children done by Assistant Psychologist.	1,000 Educational Psychol. needed by 1980. More preventive work; less emphasis on diagnosis and therapy. Bridge gap between advisory function and doing. Help to improve total educational/emotional life.
Diagnosing and providing services for children with difficulties. In-service training and long-range training for teachers. Referring students to Child Guidance Clinics and other agencies. Called upon to perform a variety of other roles: Serve as members of and advisors to Child Guidance Teams. Advisors to total schools, medical profession, etc. School based therapy. Research into school based problems. Carry out appropriate and necessary administrative functions.	
Serve as chief liason between the school and the social agencies, the parents, and other interested public groups. Individual testing to determine special class placement; recognition and diagnosis of learning problems. Consultants to classroom teachers (i.e., classroom management programs, etc.). At times are invited to serve on committees to evaluate the curriculum. In the rural areas will conduct the group testing program. Primarily work at the elementary schools; some counseling at the Junior and Senior High School level. Perform little or no therapy.	Strong need for continuing education. Extension of their work into other mental health areas in the community. More Psychological services at the Secondary level. Work on curriculum development.

SUMMARY CHART FOR PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS - -

Country/Area & Reference	Historical Development	Psycholog. Personnel	Mininumum Training for Psychological Personnel	Number Employed
CANADA, FRENCH QUEBEC, Psychology In The Educational System. Gauthier, G. Vol. 1 pp. 184-190	1960--new law brought in new specialists. Strong emphasis on clinical skills, abnormal behavior & problems of adjustment.	School Psychol. (represented by strong professional organization.	Training at MA level; no teaching requirement. Heavy emphasis on Clinical Psychology but the concept and the role is getting broader.	Approx. 500 1:4,000
COLOMBIA, School Psychology In. Suarez, G. Vol. 1. pp. 142-162	Screen candidates for higher education. Psychol. appraisal of vocational fitness.	Expert in Juvenile Pastoral	Not trained as a psychol.; 2 year specific training program: group process, devel. psychol.,counseling in self-awareness.	384 Have been trained.
		Counselors	Training programs in general psychology (not for specific applied setting). Trained to help fill counseling and guidance needs of the older student.	
		School Psychol.	Again, no specialized training for this role; much mixture with general psych. role.	
DENMARK, School Psychology In. Poulsen, A. Vol. 1 pp. 48-73	1879--1st referred to in print. 1934--1st School Psychol. hired. Group testing emphasis. Identification for "Protection Classes".	Clinical Psychol.	Requires a graduate degree in psychol and two additional years	100 Approx. 1:7,600
		Assistant School Psychol. and School Psychol.	To be a school psychol. requires 4 years training to become a teacher, teaching experience, a 1-year advanced program in psychology and pedagogy, plus a 3-year graduate program. Basically a strong Master's degree program; new requirements lead to the cand. pæd. psych. degree.	450 1:1,730 Schools employ largest number of psychol. in the country.

- - IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (Continued)

Current Utilization of Psychologically Trained Personnel	Future Trends
Most of the work centers on the problem child. Use training in child development and learning to make actual classroom observations to identify appropriate strategies. Use of behavior modification techniques in the classroom. Striving to perfect a psycho-educational model of functioning.	Adapt to rapid changes in education. Introduce innovations Study ecological relations in School. Less diagnosis.
Most are working in elementary and secondary schools performing a variety of counseling services usually within the province of the school psychologist.	Must learn to better understand and work through Non Formal Education to help meet educational needs of the masses. Legislative recognition needed to give stability.
Primarily work with older students to help them make appropriate vocational plans and to help them acquire the needed education to achieve those plans.	
Still just emerging as an identifyable role separate from the roles being played by Psychopedagogy, Counseling and Guidance, and Juvenile Pastoral.	
Broad range of duties related to special education. Many advisory and consultant type activities for the total school and for other agencies in the community. In-service training for teachers and group meetings with parents. New concept of School Psychological Counselings broadens the role a great deal out into the larger community through a well-staffed professional team serving, as a basic unit, no less than 5,000 regular and special pupils. Increasing need for psychol. to play a broader role than the traditional one played by school psychol. but also to rely on the Counseling Team to fill in with expertise that they do not have. Perform a key role in broad social welfare program with extended services which cover virtually the entire population.	More emphasis on total work of the school. Develop pilot programs. More work at preschool and with social/emotional disturbance. Continue in spec.educ.

SUMMARY CHART FOR PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS - -

Country/Area & Reference	Historical Development	Psycholog. Personnel	Mininumum Training for Psychological Personnel	Number Employed
LATIN AMERICA, Educational Psychology In. Ardila, R. Vol. 1 pp. 126-141	Educational problems complicated by high birth rate. High rates of illiteracy. Educational Psychology respected and used as an instrument of social change.	Educational Psychologists Counselors	Psychologists broadly trained in 4 to 5 years of general psychology; heavy emphasis on clinical, experimental, and counseling psychology. A large number of undergraduates take up psychology. Not a great deal of opportunity for graduate study, especially for a PhD. Psychology students are very active both politically and socially.	Approx. 2,000 in the whole of Latin America.
NEW ZEALAND, School Psychology In.	1923--1st Superv. of Special Classes hired.	Organizers of Special Classes	Selected from best teachers in Special Education. Three year teacher training. BA degree Education/Psychol.	28
Sinclair, R.O Vol. 1 pp. 191-204	1946--1st Educational Psychol	Assistant Educational Psychol.	Successful teachers. BA degree Education/Psychol. Two years supervised training in psychol. service centre.	11
	Much early emphasis on special education.	Educational Psychol.	Teaching plus MA. Two year postgraduate studentship (1 academic, 1 intern.) to complete Dip Ed Psych.	79 Ratio for all 1:8,000
NORWAY, School Psychology In. Sollien, H.H. Vol. 1 pp. 74-86	1923--1st School Psychiat. 1930--Child Guidance Clinic with School Psychol. Two models: •Child guidance/Clinical Psych. •Educat. Psychol./Develop.	School Psychol.	Graduate as psychol. after 6-7 year University study. Psychol. methods and title protected by law. Psycholog. license issued by Ministry of Health and Social Service. Psycholog. service in schools compulsory by state law with state refund. National Registry of Psychol. started in 1973.	259 1:2,200

- - IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (Continued)

Current Utilization of Psychologically Trained Personnel	Future Trends
Educational Psychology (as traditionally defined and broadly conceived) has made significant contributions in: Psychometrics: some test construction and some restandardization of both objective-type tests and projective (greater emphasis has been on projective) tests. Counseling and Guidance: provides high level interaction between psychol. and education; well received and well supported; primarily at High Schools and Universities. Special Education: much use of behavior modification and psychological principles to improve programs of special education; some especially good work with the retarded, with learning disabilities, and with cerebral dysfunction.	Continue to contribute to national development. Applied psychol. in educat. setting will continue to develop. Need legislative recognition.
Psychological services generally supervised by a centralized system but operates out of 25 psychological centers throughout the country. Organizers identify handicapped children and advise teachers on their special needs. - Started with a role of "ascertainment and placement recommendation" for special education; still heavy emphasis on this special population but now more emphasis on identifying precise educational needs and communicating with those people who actually work with the student. Working on the long-range goal of helping schools and communities to promote the strong mental-health development of students. Broader role in school and community.	Improve Psychol./student ratio. Upgrade Organizers to be Educational Psychol. Broaden the role of Psychol. More work with younger/older.
Function as key members of interdisciplinary teams (Psychol., Educationalist, Social Worker, Special Education Teachers) with 1 team member per 800 pupils. Strong emphasis on interprofessional cooperation. Preschool: Identification of high risk children and consultation with teachers. Primary Age Pupils (ages 7-16): Counseling, examinations, treatment, and consultation with the school staff. Further Education: Counseling and consultative services on individual problems; provide realistic vocational counseling. Preventive Mental Health: Consultation with agencies providing treatment and/or preventive services; follow-through with cases who were former clients.	Greater emphasis on preschool & after Primary School. Move more toward a generalist role in psychol. Longer training.

SUMMARY CHART FOR PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS - -

Country/Area & Reference	Historical Development	Psycholog. Personnel	Mininumum Training for Psychological Personnel	Number Employed
PAKISTAN, Applied Psychology In. Shaikh, M. S. Vol. 1 pp. 250-253	Oldest use of applied psychol. in Army & Civil Service. School application through teacher training & Child Guidance Clinic.	Teacher/ Counselors or Guidance Teachers	Teachers get training in Educational and Child Psychol. at undergraduate and graduate levels. Practicing Psychologists need minimum training at Masters level.	
SWEDEN: School Psychology In. Melldén, A. Vol. 1 pp. 87-101	1946--1st statement of the need to work with the mentally retarded. 1953--1st appointment of a School Psychol. Assigned to work with the entire School.	Assistant School Psychol.	Theoretical training for 3 years in University with some practicum work in the schools; otherwise all psychol. receive the same training.	400 Full time equivalents 1:3,000 (incl. both Asst. and Ind. Psych.)
		Independent Psychol.	An additional 2 years of study in pedagogy or psychology at a University (theory and practicum) plus scientific study.	
TAIWAN, REPUBLIC OF CHINA, School Psychology In. Kuo, W. F. Vol. 1 pp. 244-249	1960--1st Child Guidance Clinic. 1962--1st EMR class. Emphasis on Testing & Evaluation. Still no full-time Psychol. personnel in schools.	Volunteer College Students	Majoring in Psychology, Educational Psychol., Education, or Social Work.	
		Teacher Counselors	Some undergraduate training in Psychology.	
		University Personnel	Well trained in psychology but have little application in the school or other applied setting. Have had (in essence) on-the-job training.	

- - IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (Continued)

Current Utilization of Psychologically Trained Personnel	Future Trends
Some local Psychological tests are available. Psychologists work in Teacher Training and Education Departments in coordinating School Psychological Programs at various levels.	Many provincial & National programs emerging after high level meetings of Labor, Educat., and Social Welfare Depart's.
Participate in multi-disciplinary pupil welfare conferences which can be directed toward an individual pupil or to larger classroom- or school-wide problems. Often involves the parent and the pupil. Special education functions include: some testing but this is directed more toward providing prescriptions for the educational problems of the student, advising school authorities on what types of special education are best, etc. Observing in the regular classroom, helping teacher look at the teaching/learning process, and directing in-service days for teachers (sometimes includes leading in-service discusions on school-wide learning problems). More school psychologists spend more time on therapy than on diagnosis and/or in the design of educational programs, some work is with individuals and some with groups. Preventive emphasis and organizational work where the psychol. works with preschool children, with the total system, with parents, etc.	Several current national studies will affect the role of the Psych. Development and eval. of teaching methods. Closer liason with teachers. Self evaluation.
Provide informal, individual counseling for troubled children and teenagers (this has been a very successful program). - Guidance and counseling services to assist wider range of abilities in children to respond to longer compulsory educat. - Need for professional trained people now clearly recognized and sought (this had not always been the case). University-sponsored research on educational problems. Some Child Guidance Clinic approach.	Need for more trained people will grow. Psychol. will play important part in the development of the schools.

SUMMARY CHART FOR PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS - -

Country/Area & Reference	Historical Development	Psycholog. Personnel	Mininumum Training for Psychological Personnel	Number Employed
WESTERN GERMANY, *School Psychology In: Past-Present-Future*. Arnhold, W. Vol. 1. pp. 29-37	1922--1st School Psychol. Roots in program of Pupil Assistance (Child Welfare and Att.)	Consultant Teachers	In additon to training and successful experience as a teacher, some additional work in Pedagogical Psychol.	1,180 (Part time.)
		School Psychol.	No specific academic training aimed at application of psychology in the school situation but rigorous training in general application of Psychology.	430 (Full time.) 1:22,600

- - IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (Continued)

Current Utilization of Psychologically Trained Personnel	Future Trends
Consultant Teacher is a full time teacher with released time to do additional counseling and advisory duties. Works with children with mild learning difficulties and behavior disturbances. - Hamburg Region: find reasons for truancy and attempt to alleviate them. Hesson Region: assist the school system in finding causal factors of learning problems and find system-wide approach to the alleviation of these problems. Berlin: combined approaches of helping the individual student and assissting the entire school. Baden-Wurttemberg Region: educational research and planning for the entire Educational System. Nation-wide emphasis and committment to: School career guidance, Individual psychological guidance, and General advisement for total schools and teachers.	1985 Goal: (although not too practical) Consultant Teachers 1:500 School Psychol. 1: 5,000 (would require 1,5000 new ones). Increase professionalization.

ABOUT THE CONTRIBUTORS

Ruben Ardila

Dr. Ardila was born in San Vicente, Colombia, in 1942. He completed his undergraduate work in Psychology at the National University of Colombia in 1964 and his PhD at the University of Nebraska (USA) in 1970. He has been serving as the Chairman of the Psychology Department of the University of the Andes since 1972. He has demonstrated strong leadership in a variety of psychological organizations; he served as President of the Colombian Federation of Psychology from 1970-1974 and is currently President of the very large Interamerican Society of Psychology. His main research interests include: learning, physiological psychology, and the history of psychology. He has had over 50 articles published in professional journals all over the world and is the founder and Editor of the Revista Latinoamericana de Psicologia (Latin American Journal of Psychology). Some of his major books include Psicología del Aprendizaje (Psychology of Learning) in 1973; Nabyak de Psicología Fisiológica (A Manual of Physiological Psychology) in 1971; and is just completing La Profesión de Psicólogo en América Latina (The Profession of Psychology in Latin America).

Wolfgang Arnhold

Born in Germany in 1943, Wolfgang Arnhold completed his work in the gymnasium in 1963 and, after military service, continued his studies in Psychology at the Universities of Kiel and Munster. In 1970 he received his Psychology Diploma at the University of Kiel. He spent several years working as a psychologist in Child Guidance Clinics and, since 1972, has been the departmental expert in School Psychology and Educational Matters at the Landesschulamt Schleswig-Holstein in Kiel. He served a term as President of the School Psychology Section of the German Professional Psychological Association and, in 1975, he became Vice-President of the BDP Association, the largest organization of German Psychologists. He made the opening keynote speech at the First International Colloquium in School Psychology and now serves on the planning committee for the Second. He has published extensively in the areas of school psychology and the organization of psychological assistance or guidance for pupils and undergraduates. He has published Texts for School Psychology.

Contributors

Michael C. Berthold

Michael Berthold holds an MA in clinical psychology from Loyola, Chicago, and an MSEd from the University of Southern California. His work experience includes four years as a school psychologist, three years as a psychologist for a correctional facility, a college teacher, police psychologist, elementary teacher, high school counselor, and public aid caseworker. He is now in his fifth year as Psychologist at Taipei American School where he is responsible for the teacher-aid training program. The Founder and President of the Pacific Area Psychologists' Association, he is also the regional representative for the School Psychology Division of the American Psychological Association, Southeast Asia-Pacific Area. He is both a Registered Psychologist and a Certified School Psychologist in Illinois, a charter member of NASP, an Associate of APA, and a member of the Illinois Psychological Association. He teaches part-time for the University of Maryland Overseas and Los Angeles City College Overseas. He and his wife Maria, who speaks fluent Thai and Vietnamese, have three young sons. Their hobbies inlcude reading, movies, and travelling.

Gaston Gauthier

A native of Québec, Dr. Gauthier completed his basic education there and went on to receive his PhD in Psychology in 1948 from l'Institut de Psychologie de l'Université de Montréal. He actively served as a school psychologist for a number of years and eventually became the Director of School Psychological Services of the Mille-Isles Regional Board near Montréal. From there he moved to the Department of Education for the Province of Quebéc. He has actively supported the Corporation of the Professional Psychologists of the Province of Quebéc. He is currently a professor in the Department of Psychologie at the Université du Quebéc à Montréal; this program trains both school psychologists and educational diagnosticians. He has been actively engaged in trying to develop and to help psychologists utilize an eco-systemic approach to improving school systems. He made a presentation on this topic at the First International Colloquium in School Psychology in Munich in July, 1975.

Contributors

Henry L. Janzen

Dr. Janzen obtained his BEd Degree at the University of British Columbia and his MEd and PhD Degrees at the University of Calgary. His professional experiences include high school teaching, School Psychologist for the Calgary Public School Board, Instructor at Mt. Royal Junior College in Calgary, and Consultant to several large school districts and Learning Disability Associations in Alberta. He has taught courses on Learning, Development, School Psychology, and Learning Disabilities at the Universities of Calgary, Manitoba, and Alberta. Dr. Janzen is Assistant Dean of the Faculty of Education, Director of the Psychological Testing Centre, and Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology. In October of 1976 he will assume the position of President of the Psychological Association of Alberta. For relaxation he skiis and spends time in the sauna. He is a strong spokesman for International School Psychology in West Central Canada.

Wei-Fan Kuo

Professor Kuo graduated from the Department of Social Education at National Taiwan University. He received his MEd from the Graduate Institute of Education at the same university in 1962. In 1966 he received his Diploma of Educational Psychologist at the Institute of Psychology, and in 1967 his Doctorate in Special Education from the University of Paris. He has been professor of Special Education and Educational Psychology at the Graduate Institute of Education in National Taiwan Normal University since 1970. Dr. Kuo is the author of many articles and several books: Education of Exceptional Children, published in 1970 and Psychology of Self Concept published in 1971. He was President of the Chinese Association of Special Education from 1973 to 1975. Presently he is a member of the Education Commission of the International Federation for the Disabled (the Rehabilitation International). Because of his skill in so many languages he has represented his country in many international conferences, including the First International Colloquium in School Psychology.

Contributors

Ludwig Lowenstein

Although he was born in Germany, Dr. Lowenstein spent the early part of his life in the United States. After that he traveled extensively, wrote for a variety of newspapers, did some creative writing, and obtained his BA from the Univeristy of Western Australia in Perth. In 1962 he completed both his MA and his Clinical Educational Training at the Institute of Psychology at London University and received his PhD in 1966. He has been living in England for the past 20 years and has had a variety of practical experiences including clinical work in several hospitals, Area Psychologist in Essex, and Chief Educational Psychologist of Hampshire County (1968-74). He has always been actively involved in research and has published extensively. His most recent books have been on *Violence in the Schools* in 1972 and *Violence and Disruptive Behavior in the Schools* in 1975. He reported on this work at the First International Colloquium. He has been visiting lecturer to London University, University of Southampton, and Reading College of Technology. He is Chief Examiner for the College of Preceptors in Psychology and Educational Psychology.

Anna-Lisa Melldén

Starting when school psychologists were "very rare" in her country of Sweden, Anna Lisa Melldén today represents the highest quality of practical know-how and administrative skill. She has, since 1972, been responsible for School Psychology and also serves as Assistant to the Head of the Pupil Welfare Division to the National Swedish Board of Education. Her duties are essentially administrative in nature and include: initiating research-and-development work in school psychology, providing advice and information on psychological questions coming from both the local level and from other staff members at the National Board of Education, directing training conferences for county school psychologists throughout Sweden, expediting in-service training programs for all psychologists and (to a lesser extent) for other educational personnel in her country. She presented at the Munich Colloquium and stands as an attractive and competant spokeswoman for her profession in Sweden and, increasingly, throughout the world.

Controbutors

Mary Creighton Nixon

Dr. Nixon is a Senior Lecturer in Psychology on the Faculty of Education at Monash University. This is situated in Clayton, Victoria, in the Southeastern section of Australia. She received her PhD in Psychology from the University of Melbourne. Her professional interests are primarily in the area of cognitive development, professional psychology, and the application of psychology to educational issues. She is a Past-President of the Australian Psychological Society and is currently serving as a member of the Victorian Psychological Council, the group responsible for the registration of psychologists in the State of Victoria. She has written extensively; the two publications most closely related to the topic of this book include a recent article in the Australian Psychologist (1976, Vol.11, 65-71) entitled Educational psychology: An optimistic view. The other is a book she is co-editing with R. Taft on Psychology in Australia: Achievements and Prospects, scheduled to be released in late 1976 by Pergamon Press, in Sydney.

Anders Poulsen

After progressing through a one-room school, Anders Poulsen trained to be a teacher and eventually taught in one of the suburbs of Copenhagen where he became the head of the "observation school". He received his MA from the University of Copenhagen and has served as a School Psychologist since 1959. He has lectured (both in Danish and English) on a part-time basis at many universities on a number of topics. He served from 1966 to 1974 as a member of the Executive Board of the Danish Association for International Cooperation which is responsible for a large volunteer program and for distributing information about Denmark's "Third World". He has either worked in or gone on study trips to most of the major parts of the world. As President of the Association of Danish School Psychologists, he served on the planning committee of the First International Colloquium; he is currently a member of the Steering Committee for International School Psychology. He is also serving as Program Chairman and Local Arrangements Chairman for the Second International Colloquium in School Psychology, scheduled for August, 1977.

Contributors

Lotte Schenk-Danzinger

Professor Dr. Schenk-Danzinger continues to be one of the major figures in School Psychology not only in her native Austria but throughout the Continent of Europe. She studied Child Psychology with both Karl and Charlotte Bühler at the University of Vienna and served, under the auspieces of the Rockefeller Foundation, as that university's first Assistant for Child Psychology. After a brief position in London and a long time-out for raising a family, from 1946-1948 she standardized the Developmental Test for School-Age. This, quite naturally, led in 1948 to her appointment as the first School Psychologist in Vienna. Her dynamic leadership helped her to seek out and develop a wide range of techniques and eventually caused the Psychological Services in that city to become one of the major programs throughout Europe. In 1967 she accepted a full time Lectureship in Educational and Developmental Psychology at the Teachers Training Academy in Vienna, where she still serves on a parttime basis.

M. Sadiq Shaikh

A native of Pakistan, M. Sadiq Shaikh received his basic education and graduated second in his class from the University of Punjab in 1960. His Master's Thesis was on "A Psychological Explanation of Religious Healing". For the past 16 years he has worked in a variety of cross-cultural settings, first in Pakistan, then in the Middle Eastern Countries, and currently in Nigeria. Since 1969 he has served as the Educational Psychologist in the Child Guidance Clinic in Lagos, Nigeria and, for the past three years, as the head of School Psychological Service in Lagos. He has published many articles, book reviews, and reports in a variety of national and international publications and has also participated in many national and international conferences on Psychology, Guidance, and Special Education. He belongs to a variety of Cross Cultural, Educational/Vocational Guidance, and Psychological organizations and is currently an area chairman for the International Council of Psychologists. Although he could not attend the First Colloquium in Munich, he contributed to it by submitting the paper that appears in this book on applied psychology in Pakistan.

Contributors

Rodney Sinclair

Rodney Sinclair's secondary schooling was interrupted to go to work as a junior clerk in commerce; he entered Government Service in 1938. In 1945, after serving six years in the Navy, he entered a three year training program to become an elementary school teacher. Later, while teaching, he enrolled as a parttime student in Education and Psychology, finishing his MA in 1953. He interrupted further elementary school teaching to spend four years teaching secondary school and Teachers College in Fiji. He joined the Psychological Service of the New Zealand Education Department in 1961. He was promoted to District Psychologist (in charge) in a local district in 1964 and received his Advanced Diploma in Teaching in 1965. Since 1971 he has been serving as the Chief Psychologist for the New Zealand Department of Education in Wellington. He is responsible for the major thrusts of selecting personnel, helping to provide and insure adequate training, hiring, assigning, and supervising all Educational Psychologists in his country. Wherever he goes he leaves behind the well deserved impression that he is extremely warm and friendly, a well-appointed international statesman for his profession.

Hans Henry Sollien

Hans Sollien has had a long and varied career in the development and practical application of school psychology in his native Norway. Born in Oslo in 1929, he graduated from the University of Oslo in 1958 and finished at the Institute of Psychology as cand. psychol. (PhD). From 1959 to 1961 he was a psychologist in The Psychological Service of the Norwegian Army and served with the Norwegian U.N. Forces in the Middle East in the same capacity. For two years he was a co-researcher at the University of Oslo in the Institute of Child development. From 1965 to 1969 he was a Lecturer in Psychology and since then has served as a School Psychologist. He was elected as a member of the executive committee of the Norwegian Psychological Association and subsequently took on the position of Chairman of the Division of School Psychology in that organization. In 1975 he became the chairman to the committee for Research and Development. In his spare time he expresses his deep interest in outdoor life by freshwater fishing, sailing, and thinking, in his beautiful Oslo fjords.

Contributors

Gerardo Suarez

Dr. Suarez is a native of Colómbia and received his early training there. He served as a school psychologist until he joined the faculty of the Pontifical Xaverian University in Bogota. This is one of the most influential private schools in Colómbia. There, as a member of the Psychology Department, he attempted to initiate and improve the offering for psychology students and moved toward the initiation of a specialized program in school psychology. On two different occasions he has been appointed as a Ford Scholar to go to the USA, first to get his MA from the University of Wisconsin and later to work on his PhD at the University of Pittsburgh. While at Pittsburgh, he returned to his native Colómbia to attend the XV Interamerican Congress on Psychology and chaired a symposium for the International School Psychology Committee. His doctoral research was on the practical applications of verbal learning theory; he reported on the implications of this work in the school setting at the First Colloquium. Now that he has completed his PhD he is serving as a Psychologist for the Shaler Area School District near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN WESTERN GERMANY:
PAST - PRESENT - FUTURE

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The Past

The relationship between an institution called "Schülerkontrolle" (Pupil Control), having the status of a local supervisory authority with police functions (School Police Department), and school-psychological and educational guidance is striking and, at first sight, appears unrealistic and even questionable. The development of school psychology and educational guidance in the Federal Republic of Germany shows, however, that such a relationship does factually and formally exist.

The year 1922 is today generally regarded as the starting point of the development of school psychology in the Federal Republic of Germany. At this time Lämmermann in Mannheim began with his work as the first German school psychologist. Due to the schools of psychological thought and the idealistic pedagogy associated with them which prevailed at that time however, the idea of employing school-psychological counsellors did not spread rapidly in Germany. The prevailing mental attitude regarded the unfolding development of children and juveniles as being straightforward and free from crises. Specialists such as psychologists, whose job was considered to be primarily that of giving advice or assistance in time of crisis, were not considered to be a necessary part of the school program. The actual beginning of the development of school-psychological services and educational guidance took place in the years following 1945, in particular in the sections of the Federal Republic, the Länder of Hamburg and Hessen.

The institutional birth of today's school-psychological service can be seen in the concept of "Schülerhilfe" (Pupil Assistance) and took place in Hamburg where the "Schülerkontrolle" had previously been set up in 1931. This was similar to the functions of the "Attendance Officer" to be found in other countries. The tasks of the Schülerkontrolle included the following: granting permission to be absent from school; arranging for time off from school for students too advanced for the curriculum; escorting non-attendants (truants) back to school (even where necessary by use of the police); issuing warnings to pupils, parents, and employers about possible punishment associated with attendance laws; and charging them with the violation of the "Fortbildungsschulpflichtgesetz" (Advanced Education Act). Pupil Control had been established because of the extreme difficulties existing at that time in implementing the compulsory attendance at vocational schools. The number of truants was considerable. It started with the hope that such a program would be able to keep these students in school or at least to bring about an improvement in the problem. In 1938, this agency was given the status of a "local supervisory authority" with police functions. As a result of this, in the following years the attendance at vocational schools was substantially improved.

Starting in 1945, a reorientation of the approach used in this kind of work began. It began to be"..based on both the determination of the reasons leading to the violation of compulsory school attendance acts and their elimination; Pupil Control should, in the future, focus it's attention in particular on social and welfare measures for the benefit of all children of school age" (Staatliche Pressestelle, Hamburg, 1973, p.4). Pupil Control changed into a socio-pedagogic agency; in 1953 it was renamed "Schulerhilfe" (Pupil Assistance). A large body of teachers sought to obtain both practical assistance from the empirically proven procedures being developed as well as the more theoretical assistance that was starting to be made available at that time in the area of pedagogical psychology. Their desire came more and more to be satisfactorily fulfilled, especially through the employment of school psychologists. As part of the larger movement which sought to understand and eliminate the reasons for school problems, school psychology concentrated on the individual pupil with learning difficulties and behavioral disturbances; i.e., on the special case.

Starting in 1954, in another part of the Republic in Land Hessen, in contrast with the individual emphasis in Hamburg, school psychological services were built up to be primarily assistance to the school system. School psychologists were to be employees mainly in the sector of School Assistance. "It is the object of the school-psychological service in

Hessen to find information about the major causal factors in school learning problems and, by working in the school and with it's help, to take general prophylactic measures to eliminate them. It was also supposed to maintain endeavors toward mental hygiene for all students in every-day school life rather than, in the isolation of a guidance centre, to guide individual cases of faulty development into proper channels" (Bach, 1972, p. 292).

The concept of the school psychologist helping solve school wide problems eventually led to a brief reference to school psychologists being issued for the first time in 1960 by the Ministry of Education in Hessen. School psychologists were charged with the responsibility for investigating such topics as: the further development of a multi-dimensional test to select students for advanced education; to investigate the school readiness problem and the work of preschool classes; as well as to study, for example, the ability of 10-year-old children to concentrate.

Starting in 1957, the school-psychological service built up in Berlin attempted to combine the two initial approaches of focusing on the individual and focusing on the problems of the school which had been initiated in Hamburg and Hessen.

At the beginning of 1966, a further interpretation of school-psychological work was introduced in Baden-Württemberg. In this setting, psychology was quite deliberately related to educational research and planning. Traditional school psychology in Hamburg, Hessen, and Berlin, in spite of some differences in daily practice, has concentrated on the individual pupil. This approach was now supplemented by problems such as prognosis, differentiation, advancement, and individualization as pedagogical requirements. Educational guidance began to be more clearly understood as being much more comprehensive and directed toward the further development of the total educational system. "It is intended that the work of the educational guidance centers shall, in addition to individual and constant guidance as to optimum learning methods, contribute to innovations in the entire educational system" (Kultusministerium, Baden-Württemberg, 1973, p.3).

Psychology in the schools began to be seen as having a decisive role to play. In Baden-Württemberg this was clearly shown by the acquisition and making available information about a student which is more than merely passing on "external" data, "as individual data of the child receiving guidance cannot be considered. Psychodiagnostics thus can be seen as a very decisive part of qualified educational guidance. The making available of information therefore also means diagnosing the individual seeking guidance" (Kultusministerium, Baden-Württemberg, 1973, p.6).

Four major lines of development in educational guidance are thus to be found in the Federal Republic of Germany. Hamburg started concentration of efforts on Pupil Assistance; Hessen moved to an emphasis on aspects of School Assistance; Berlin attempted to fuse both concepts into a version of its own; while Baden-Württemberg related educational guidance to educational research, educational planning, and innovations in the total educational system as such.

Within this spectrum School-Psychological guidance centers have, in recent years, established themselves in all of the Länder of the Federal Republic of Germany, although with varying emphases. A binding concept common to all Länder has, however, yet to be found. Nevertheless, a good deal of important preparatory work has already been done. The place of school psychology in the total guidance program can be clearly seen in the resolution "Beratung in Schule und Hochschule" (Guidance in Schools and Universities) adopted by the Conference of Ministers of Education on September 14, 1973. Here guidance is clearly defined as a government responsibility. The resolution proceeds from the assumption that it is one of the tasks of schools and universities to guide pupils and students in their decisions as to the personal curriculum most suitable to them. In the sector of school guidance three main areas are defined:

(1) School Career Guidance, (2) Individual Psychological Guidance, and (3) Guidance for Schools and Teachers.

The Present and the Future

Concepts and aims.

The task areas mentioned in the recommendations of the Conference of Ministers of Education on Guidance in Schools and Universities are to be found today in all concepts of school guidance in the Federal Republic. In their implementation, however, different staffing structures and a different focus will naturally occur in dissimilar settings. Evidence of this can be seen in the different emphases and wide range of approaches to guidance for schools and teachers as well as to school career guidance per se. In Baden-Württemberg, for instance, there is a deliberate neglect of individual psychological guidance. In Hamburg there is a more or less equal distribution of emphasis between individual guidance and more practical work. In Hessen and Berlin there is a strong predominance of individual assistance.

Although there are considerable differences in the various guidance centers, a general tendency is observable towards placing equal emphasis on the three main areas already mentioned. Pronounced efforts can also be observed in starting to place more emphasis on prophylactic measures such as systematic school entrance diagnosis with the aim of early recognition of learning difficulties and behavioral disturbances. Proposals relating to the so-called "multiple education" (including the further education of parents and the in-servicing of teachers in the improvement of educative behavior) are being increasingly absorbed into the field of educational guidance.

There is also a major need to consolidate the conceptual basis behind guidance with it's specific methodology. Not yet fully discussed, for instance, is the question of freedom from bias in the organization and administration of guidance. One conceptualization leads to a statement such as: "The guidance of pupils, the majority of whom will later take up non-independent occupations, cannot be impartial: conscious preference towards individuals engaged in non-independent activities is therefore necessary" (Kohler, 1975, p. 302). Is this compatible with the view that says our work should be guided by: "The principle that every psychological activity must therefore be the offer to help in orientation and the endeavor to provide optimum individual promotion as well as to aim at the elimination of conflicts in the individual" (Reichenbecker, 1975). This is related to the question about whether or not guidance may be regarded as an instrument of selection which has, up to now, been only touched upon. Are we here to help each individual develop to their maximum or are we here to help society select and educate its potential leaders?

Psychological personnel.

In the Federal Republic, Psychological personnel primarily consist of school psychologists and consultant teachers. School psychologists are psychologists with university training; in addition, some are fully qualified teachers. Up to now, no special training for school psychologists and educational counsellors exists in this country. Furthermore, an agreement on a clear definition of the fields of activity of psychologists with university training and consultant teachers has not yet been achieved.

In general, it can be said that school psychologists are usually the heads of guidance centers and have no teaching committments. They are responsible for the coordination of the work, for the supervision, and for handling all of the complex guidance of pupils, parents, and teachers. In order to accomplish these tasks, a full university training as a psychologist is required.

Consultant teachers are full-time teachers who have been given a certain amount of time off from their teaching schedule to perform advisory activities. They have received additional training in pedagogical psychology, althouth this is of varying quality. They thus cooperate, so to speak, "externally" with the school-psychological guidance centers and, in the school, devote themselves particularly to the guidance of mild cases of learning difficulties and behavioral disturbances. Diagnosis and therapeutic measures, for which special scientific training is a requirement, are not their responsibility.

As of July 1, 1975, there were approximately 430 full-time school psychologists and 1,180 part-time consultant teachers in the Federal Republic of Germany. The ratio of school psychologists to pupils is thus approximately 1:22,600. The least favorable ratio is to be found in Bavaria with approximately 1:58,000. For comparison, the projected numbers, according to the Overall Educational Program, are as follows:

	1975	1980	1985
Number of pupils to one psychologist	15,000	5,000	5,000
Number of pupils to one consultant teacher	3,000	1,000	500

These statistics show that school guidance in the Federal Republic of Germany is still in the process of developing. Based on the numbers given, there will be an enormous demand for personnel in the years to come. Owing to the present unfavorable financial situation in the country, it is fairly certain that these numbers of positions will not be attained as scheduled. New plans, particularly in regard to funding, are necessary to establish meaningful short and long-range goals.

Organizational and administrative aspects.

There are centralized guidance services (for example, Land Hamburg) where all guidance personnel work in one center. There are also forms of school guidance which are decentralized or function at different levels. This is true, for example, in Land Baden-Württemberg where all educational guidance centers are agencies of the Institute for Educational Planning and Study Information which, in turn, is directly subordinated to the administrative and expert supervision of the Ministry of Education. Finally there are forms of guidance directly integrated into the schools as may be found in the comprehensive schools and school centers. In general, it can be stated that the large cities have large centralized guidance centers and that, on the other hand, the larger the area to be covered, the greater is the degree of decentralization of school guidance. It is apparent that the largest gaps in the guidance efforts in the Federal Republic are to be found in those Länder covering the largest geographical areas.

With the one exception of North Rhine-Westphalia, the responsibility for school-psychological services and educational guidance centers lies with the Federal Länder. This harmonizes with the view so clearly defined in the resolution adopted by the Conference of Ministers of Education which regards guidance as a government responsibility. In view of the need for cooperation between the consultant teachers and school psychologists/educational counselors, it is desirable that they both be under the same authority.

The administrative institutionalization of school guidance is still in its infancy. Only the School Administration Law of Schleswig-Holstein contains an article related to educational guidance. It, however, has not yet been implemented. Baden-Württemberg intends to incorporate an article concerning educational guidance in an amendment of the existant laws. In the rest of the Federal Republic, school guidance is regulated by more informal decrees and ordinances of the appropriate school administrative authorities.

Conclusion

School Guidance in the Federal Republic of Germany is still in the process of being established. It's development began with efforts at the level of the local government and in the Länder; later it took on a more national character. The entire field of educational guidance has been clearly defined; it ranges from preschool through higher education. "Guidance must be continuous and should not be confined to merely dealing with the abnormal and it's treatment. Guidance and treatment must not only be focussed on a few individual pupils, but must also encompass all personnel of the educational system, in fact, it must work with the whole educational system itself" (Arnhold, 1975). Guidance is now regarded as a government responsibility and as an integral part of the entire educational process. Endeavors are being made to achieve an ever-increasing professionalization of the personnel involved.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN AUSTRIA

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The Beginnings

To counteract all of the harm young people in Austria had suffered both during the war and in the after-war period, Dr. Leopold Zechner, then President of the Education Committee in Vienna, decided to establish a school psychological service for elementary and secondary schools in October of 1948. He entrusted the author of this article with the task of planning and organizing this new institution. At that time, as far as Europe was concerned, school psychological services existed in Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. A similar organization called "Help for Pupils" had already become a certain tradition in Hamburg, Germany. Of all the European cities which had suffered from battles or air raids during the Second World War, Vienna was the first to start school psychological work while the city authorities were still involved in rebuilding and reorganizing the schools (Schenk-Danzinger, 1975).

Working conditions at the beginning were difficult. During the first year all examinations took place in one of the big lecture halls of the Pädagogisches Institut, a teacher's in-service training institution, since rooms there were empty in the mornings. There was just one cupboard for the material. The child worked at one of the front benches while the waiting mother sat in one of the back benches and had to give her interview in a low voice. The author worked all by herself at first; a little later she was assisted by a teacher who had been superficially trained for the work, and still later by a social worker.

Since 1946 and prior to the opening of the school psychological service, the author's Developmental Tests for School Age were standardized under her guidance by a group of teachers who volunteered for this work. So when we started in the autumn of 1948 we had an instrument well adapted to the abilities of our children and to the requirements of school psychological work. (See Schenk-Danzinger, 1970a.)

In 1949 we changed into three inadequately furnished classrooms which could be spared by a special school for children with defective vision. The number of assistants was increased to three teachers, two of whom took their academic degrees in psychology or education while working at the school psychological institute. In addition, we had a social worker and once a week a child psychiatrist who served as a consultant. It was pioneer work in the true sense of the word, for, thanks primarily to the enthusiasm of all people involved, our work developed into a model institution both for Austria and for many colleagues from other countries who came to visit us. Since at that time there were no places for psychologists authorized in the school budget, we all worked for the salaries given to elementary school teachers, in spite of our academic training.

For the development of school psychological service in Austria, it was of some importance that the author had an opportunity to visit the United States in the spring of 1949. She was invited to study school psychology within the "Program for the Reorientation of Austria". She spent several weeks at Maryland University with Professor Prescott; later she visited the Fels Foundation and was subsequently introduced into the organizations and techniques of school psychology as they existed and were practiced in Chicago, Philadelphia, and New York. It was then that she was first confronted with the problem of reading disability which to that point had not been realized in Austria as something different from mental deficiency (although naturally, like everywhere else, we had many mysterious cases of underachievement in reading and spelling). Reading clinics and reading classes, especially those in Philadelphia, were models for similar attempts introduced later in Viennese schools.

In the autumn of the same year, the author was among a number of Austrian educationalists invited by the "Schweizer Europahilfe" to study diagnostic methods and various types of organizations of school psychological services in Switzerland. Since there is no centralized organization and every county develops educational services independently, a great variety of organizations, methods, and types of material could be studied.

The year 1950 marked a considerable expansion of school psychology in Vienna. A school psychological service for grammar school students was now organized on a private basis by a psychoanalytic society. It was run very much on the lines of a Child Guidance Clinic; that is to say students were not only examined and their difficulties diagnosed, but for some of them there was also a chance for treatment. Another characteristic feature of this private institution was that they established one school counselor in every school. Usually the person who taught psychology volunteered for this work, forming a link between the children, the teachers, the parents, and the school psychological service. Their job was to refer young people who seemed to need more intensive help to this institution and to supervise the carrying out of suggestions made to their colleagues as a result of the psychological examination.

In 1966 school psychology for grammar schools lost its private character and was taken over by the Ministry of Education. Psychotherapy was given up, but the school counselors remain until today. Also in 1950, a school psychological service for apprentices was established, first on the initiative of a young pediatrician; later this organization was also taken over by the Education Committee. Young people (from 15-19) who learned a trade were required to attend the continuation schools for three half-days a week. For these young people school psychologists were available in the evenings after working hours. The majority were referred by their teachers, their masters, or their parents, but many came on their own. They usually needed help in very personal matters, e.g. love affairs, trouble with parents, discontent with their chosen profession, etc., and many came for advice again and again over the years. A number of teachers worked as counselors in the schools. In recent years, drug addicts have become one of the major groups with whom psychologists have worked.

The Further Development of School Psychological Services

Soon after a school psychological service for elementary and secondary school children had been established in Vienna, a very similar institution was organized in Linz in Upper Austria. In the course of the years, services were founded in the following centers, most of which also covered the surrounding country district:

Burgenland: Eisenstadt, Oberwarth
Carinthia: Klagenfurt, Villach, Wolfsberg, Spittal an der Drau
Lower Austria: Horn, St. Pölten, Bruck an der Leitha, Amstetten
Upper Austria: Linz (2 local departments), Ried im Innkreis, Gmunden, Steyr
Salzburg: Salzburg-City (2 local departments), Zell am See, St. Johann i.P., Hallein
Styria: Graz (2 local departments), Leoben, Gleisdorf
The Tyrol: Innsbruck, Wörgl, Reutte, Lienz, Imst
Vorarlberg: Bregenz, Feldkirch

From 1966 on, the service for apprentices expanded widely. The staff at this time consisted of three psychologists, one psychiatrist, one speech therapist, 4 social workers, and 18 school counselors. All the school counselors were trained in special courses at the "Pädagogisches Institut of Vienna". School psychological services for older juveniles even now exist only in Vienna.

In 1968 a fourth type of school psychological service was established in Vienna for 15-19 year old students who receive a higher education in full-day professional schools.

In February, 1961 The Vienna School Psychological Service for Elementary and Secondary Schools found adequate accomodations at last. We moved into rooms which had been designed especially for this purpose in a newly erected building. The staff now comprised 5 or 6 school psychologists, 2 social workers, 1 child psychiatrist (as consultant), 7 school counselors and 1 secretary. School counselors worked in the schools, especially in remote areas where it was difficult to get parents to bring the children into the institute.

New Education Acts in 1962

The new education acts which passed parliament in 1962 brought great changes for school psychologists in Austria. For the first time their work was "legal" in the sense that their places were now authorized in the budget. School psychology had become an official part of the school system. It also meant that salaries were raised in accordance with the academic training required for the job. The local organizations now all came under the control of a central department in the Ministry of Education.

School psychologists were now confronted with new tasks. These tasks had been fulfilled before but now all began to be regulated. School psychological examinations became compulsory whenever a teacher wanted to release a school beginner from school attendance for a year because the child did not seem ready for school and in every case when a transfer into a special school was suggested. Children who seemed to need special help in reading classes or in courses for dyslectics were only accepted into these programs after having undergone a full psychological examination. When parents want their children to go to school before they are six, the child also has to be submitted to a school readiness test.

All these new tasks, necessary as they were, had one disadvantage. They did not leave enough time and energies for behavior cases which before had received adequate attention.

Since 1962 the number of authorized places for school psychologists has gradually increased. The number of psychologists working in the different areas of Austria in 1974 was as follows: Burgenland, 2; Carinthia, 5; Lower Austria, 8; Upper Austria, 8; Styria, 6; Salzburg, 6; Tyrol, 6; Vorarlberg, 2, and Vienna, 18. The number of school counselors is being gradually reduced (except in the grammar and continuation schools) and they are being replaced by psychologists with full academic training.

The number of cases dealt with in the 1973-74 school year all over Austria (together with the reasons for the examinations) is as follows:

School readiness	3,593
Special school administration	4,043
Advice as to type of school suitable	2,988
Learning and behavior problems	7,360
Various other reasons	447
	18,461

Methods Used

The full school-psychological examination procedure consists of five parts:

1. A developmental or intelligence test;
2. In case of learning problems, a standardized achievement test, especially to diagnose dyslexia;
3. In cases of underachievement or in cases of behavior troubles, a battery of projective tests;
4. A comprehensive interview with the mother or with both parents about the child's history, birth history, illnesses, past and present educational situation, development, special events and difficulties the parents encountered in education, the educational measures the parents have taken, their attitude towards the child's difficulties, and their relationship with the teacher;
5. In cases where brain damage or some other organic reason for difficulties is being suspected and also in cases of a neurotic development, a child psychiatrist has to be consulted.

At the time of the examination a report from the teacher should be at hand as well as reports from medical, social, or educational agencies that might have dealt with the child before. School psychologists work in close contact with the social agency of the district in which the child lives as well as with clinics and child guidance centers. It is, unfortunately, not possible to carry out any kind of psychotherapy at the school psychological institutes. Children who need treatment have to be referred to public therapy centers or to private therapists. After every examination the parents are informed and advised as to the best way to overcome their child's difficulties. Reports are sent to the schools and, if necessary, to social agencies and clinics.

One year after a school psychological examination, a questionnaire is sent to the school from which the child has been referred. The teachers are asked to give information about the further development of the child and about the success or failure in carrying out the psychologist's suggestions.

School Authorities in Austria Received Many Impulses from School Psychologists

School psychologists are often better able to survey the deficiencies and problems of a school system than authorities or individual teachers. Therefore it is their duty to point these out and to suggest remedies. The Viennese School Psychologists did this in the following areas:

1. It was pointed out that it was not enough to release school beginners from school attendance for a year if they did not appear to be ready for school. Children of this type, whose lack of readiness was usually due to insufficient intellectual stimulation in preschool years, need special attention. As a consequence, preschool classes were organized for these children and they work with remarkable success. We have 40 such classes in Vienna. In other parts of Austria their numbers are gradually increasing.
2. Nobody knew anything about dyslexia until school psychologists pointed out that many dyslexic children were of normal intelligence and needed special help in reading and spelling. Reading classes were therefore organized in Vienna and were later supplemented by a steadily increasing number of courses. They take place during school hours and are given by specially trained teachers. Until recently a shortage of teachers prevented a similar development outside Vienna, but this shortage will soon be overcome.
3. When school psychology started in Austria, left handed children were still forced to use their right hand for writing, drawing, and sewing. School psychologists continued to emphasize the problems of "breaking" until now every child is free to use their preferred hand.
4. Whether a child was to be sent to a special school had formerly been decided by a telephone call between two Head Masters. School psychologists pointed out that "personal impression" may not do justice to the great responsibility involved in such important decisions. Objective methods ought to provide an impersonal frame of reference. Now every child suggested for special school has to undergo a full psychological examination.

Lately a number of other new programs are being developed:

1. Special assistance and support is given to gifted children of foreign workers (mostly Yugoslavian and Turkish) in order to enable them to compete successfully with their German speaking comrades.
2. Courses are being organized for dyslectic children in grammar schools.
3. Group dynamic treatment is available for 15-18 year old apprentices who are in danger of becoming addicts to drugs or alcohol.
4. Autogenous training is provided for grammar school students as well as for students in higher professional education who suffer from examination anxiety and psychogenic learning difficulties.

The Training of School Psychologists

The training of school psychologists is quite a problem in Austria. In the beginning school psychologists had to meet two requirements: they had to be trained and experienced teachers and University trained psychologists as well. These people were well acquainted with the classroom situations and with the demands made upon the children in different grades and in different types of schools. They were able to estimate the factors of a child's home situation, of his/her position in the group, and of all the many factors that influence school performance often more than does measurable intelligence, such as motivation, concentration, and perseverance.

With the increase in the number of authorized places for school psychologists in the budget there were no longer enough people available with the required double professional training as teachers and psychologists. Therefore, the only requirement now is that of a university degree in psychology. However, no specialization in school psychology is yet possible at Austrian Universities, although courses in testing and interpreting projective techniques are offered. Our younger school psycologists completely lack school experience and they tend at first to attach too much importance to the IQ's. They know nothing about reading disability, about the possible consequences of minor brain damage, and about other problems of every day school life. Therefore all new psychologists have to undergo an intensive training which consists of supervision by the head of their department and of case discussions either with the department head or with the entire staff of a local department.

An improvement in the training of school psychologists is expected to take place as soon as students in psychology or in education will be able to specialize at the universities in order to prepare for those practical tasks to which they eventually wish to devote themselves.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN DENMARK

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The words "school psychology" were, as far as we know, used in print in Denmark for the first time in the year 1879. In those days a periodical existed which raised a lively debate about education in general and about school instruction in particular. An 1899 article in this same periodical read: as "well started as the school psychology now is, it will for sure have a bright future in our country." The expression "school psychology" referred to a very broad utilization of psychological knowledge and thinking on pedagogical problems.

It was not easy, however, to put school psychology into practice. The number of pupils in each class was high. According to the School Act of 1814, which introduced compulsory education in Denmark, the upper limit for the number of pupils in the class was 80. But up to about 1900 it was not difficult to find classes with almost 100 pupils.

Shortly after the turn of the century the pupil rate in the class dropped considerably, and the school and teachers began to focus more on the individual pupil. In 1900, Copenhagen started the first special education in the "folkschool"; the so-called "protection classes" were for slow learners.

Far-sighted, progressive people saw the value of establishing research in the area of education. In 1912, "The Association for Scientific Pedagogy" was founded as was "The Association for Experimental Pedagogy" in 1914. Unfortunately, both of these have had very little connection with the folkschool and its people, and therefore their work did not have a broad influence.

In 1924, "The Committee to Organize the Work for Providing Intelligence- and Achievement Tests" was founded. In the following year it changed its name to "The Committee for School Psychological Examinations." This privately established committee had, from the beginning, good support from a number of associations and groups that were connected with the folkschool.

During the 1920's and 1930's this committee published a number of achievement tests in reading and arithmetic. Most important was the fact that they published a Danish version of the Binet Intelligence Test in 1930.

In the same year, a wealthy municipal school-system in the suburbs of Copenhagen officially asked a teacher who was working in their schools and had taken the Master of Arts in Psychology to "examine" 15 children who might have to attend such a "protection class". This event is regarded as the actual beginning of the school psychological work in Denmark. In 1934 the same municipal school system appointed this same teacher as the first school psychologist in Denmark. The combination of a teacher and a psychologist makes a school psychologist, so this tradition has continued by law until this day.

The tasks for this first school psychologist, as they appear in a document written at the time of his appointment, included:

1. Organizing and evaluating achievement tests in the schools,
2. Examining children who had been referred by the municipal director of schools:
    a. Children who had been referred to the "protection classes",
    b. Slow learners in Grade 1,
    c. Children in experimental classes,
    d. Children in ordinary classes for whom the teacher finds an inexplicable discrepancy between ability and achievement, and for children with "mental defects and other peculiarities."
3. Lectures for and guidance of the teachers.

In 1935 the city of Copenhagen appointed their first school psychologist; the next one came in a suburban municipality in 1942. These first school psychologists were all teachers with an additional Master of Arts in Psychology from the University of Copenhagen. The reasons for these appointments were circumstances in connection with the special education of children with special learning problems.

The work of these pioneers can still be seen in Danish school psychology up to this day. Their educational background (teacher + university degree in psychology) formed a standard which still prevails. This standard has always given school psychology in Denmark a relatively high professional level and has been the background for Danish School Psychology as an accepted, integrated, and needed part of the work provided by the public folkschool system.

Among the teachers interested in and studying psychology in the late 1930's and 1940's, there were some who were strongly influenced by the Freudian school and were also inspired by the "child guidance" approach of Cyril Burt in London. Thus school psychology in Denmark had its primary origin in the problems of special education, but with an early component of "clinical psychology". Up to the late sixties the educational psychologist was almost the only type of psychologist represented on the staff working in "the school psychological offices", but since 1970 a strong element of "clinical psychologists" has been introduced.

Legislation

As school psychology in Denmark is very closely and intimately connected to the work of the folkschool, a short description of some of the major legislative changes in connection with special education and school psychology is in order.

Until 1924 legislation dealing with the instruction of the handicapped had been administered by the Ministry of Education, at which time the administration of instruction at special institutions for the handicapped was transferred to the newly established Ministry of Social Affairs. This means that since 1924, all children with the most severe motor and mental handicaps have been given their education in schools (day schools or boarding schools) paid and run directly by the State, an educational system fully independent of the normal municipal folkschool system.

At the same time the municipal schools had special education for children with minor difficulties in education. In connection with the municipal schools' special education, two major factors have been operating during the years from World War II up to the middle 1960's.

First, it was quite natural that the school and the teachers found it difficult to educate children who deviated from the so-called "normal" in the ordinary class. The work is more difficult and, in a very subject oriented school, it easily results in the fact that neither the big group of children with no learning problems nor the few with learning problems obtain the optimal results. This is a factor which moves toward segregation in the school.

Secondly, in the same period there was a very strong development in psychological and pedagogical knowledge and practice. Many authorities held the point of view that children with handicaps or learning disabilities would be given their optimal development if they received a specially organized education, i.e., an education paying attention to and compensating for their special problems. This way of looking at the situation not only justified the segregation, but almost turned it into a pedagogical necessity.

In the early 1930's there was no legislative obligation for the municipalities to establish special education. This duty was described for the first time in the great School Act in 1937 which said, "For children who cannot follow the ordinary teaching, special education has to be provided if conditions allow it."

It was already by then well accepted, although not legislatively required, that a person with special knowledge and insight in child-development ought to be consulted in connection with the decision of providing special education for a child. The needs for help from a school psychologist of course grew, but the municipalities were somewhat slow to move in this direction, mainly because there was no State support for this special service. Therefore, in 1949 a State subsidy was introduced to make it possible to appoint school psychologists in all school districts of the country.

From then on a higher level of expertize was brought to bear on the special educational problems developed within the folkschool. It was generally found that the very vague recommendations concerning special education in the 1937 School Act were unsatisfactory. Therefore in 1955 an official State Commission for Special Education was established with the purpose of giving an overall discription and evaluation of the needed reforms and legislative changes in order to make it possible for the folkschool to provide all children with the optimal educational opportunities.

The results of this commission were published by the Ministry of Education in 1961. All the proposals and recommendations in this report greatly influenced the development of school psychology and special education in the following years.

During the work of the commission it became obvious that the Ministry of Education needed a Superintendent for this special area. A former school psychologist, Mr. Skov Jørgensen, was appointed in 1958 to this post. He is still in office and the area under his responsibility has experienced a unique development.

On the basis of the work of the Commission for Special Education, amendments relating to Special Education were introduced in the School Act as early as 1958. From that time on it has been compulsory for the municipalities to provide special education for the more frequent groups of learning disabilities; official regulations on this topic were given in circulars from the Ministry of Education in 1961. Finally, amendments to the School Act in 1970 required all municipalities to provide special education for every student who could not benefit from the ordinary education in a satisfactory way.

It has always been the practice that special education be provided for a child only upon the recommendation of a school psychologist, based upon their contact with the child. This kind of approval was first introduced as a legislative requirement in the new General School Act of 1975.

The work of the school psychologist, as given over the years in circulars, recommendations, working instructions, etc. can be summed up this way:

1. To examine and possibly treat children whose school work or upbringing indicate special problems.
2. To take practical steps in connection with the transfer of a student to special education.
3. To select children for instructions at observation schools.
4. To organize home- or hospital-instruction for sick or disabled

children.

5. To participate in the supervision of special education activities.
6. To keep informed about the children who have been referred to special education and to carry out the follow-up examinations that are necessary to decide upon either the changes needed or the discontinuance of special education.
7. To advise about the possibilities for further education of handicapped pupils.
8. To organize activities for the youth advisory officers (curators).
9. To submit statements and recommendations needed to obtain dispensations for handicapped pupils when they were required for examinations.
10. To be active in procuring suitable premises for special education activities.
11. To organize courses for the continuing education of special education teachers.
12. To participate actively in parent meetings.
13. To promote and be responsible for experimental teaching and developmental work within regular education as well as in special education.
14. To promote and be responsible for research both in connection with their own work and in the schools they serve.
15. To represent the public primary school both locally and regionally in matters where the Health Services and the Social Welfare Services are involved.
16. To advise in connection with school entry problems.

Their job is obviously not only concentrated on the pupil as an individual, but also on the school as such and the whole educational system. To understand the role of the school psychologist in the Danish folkschool (covering compulsory education for all from kindergarten up to the end of grade 9) you have to realize that special education of a child is essentially a "prescription" written out by the staff of the office of the school psychologists.

The following quotations from Danish Primary School Acts will help to clarify the situation.

Children whose personal development requires a special regard or support can be given special education or other special assistance.

A permanent referral to special education requires a school psychological investigation and takes place only after consultation with the pupil and the parents.

It is the obligation of each borough education committee to provide special education to all children and youths under 18 years of age living in the borough.

Pupils who, because of the danger of infection or because of requirements of their health and welfare, cannot be taught at school will be given private instructions in their own homes or in the institution where they are housed.

A curriculum is worked out for each borough; this curriculum must provide special education and instruction in local institutions.

Pupils who for some reason have been without instruction for a long period of time, or have moved to another school, can be given supplementary instructions or other means of assistance. The Ministry of Education can also decide that foreign pupils may be given instructions in their mother tongue.

In several instances the School Act also directs The Minister of Education to provide "more detailed regulations" for a given area. These regulations are provided in circulars from the Ministry of Education. An example is seen in selections from the circular concerning the special education of reading retarded pupils, which took effect in August of 1974:

Section 1.

Subsection 1. The provisions in this circular cover pupils who, due to special difficulties in connection with reading and spelling and also possible difficulties in connection with arithmetic, cannot derive sufficient benefit from the instruction given in ordinary classes.

Subsection 2. The objective of special education is to enable the pupils to master the contents of written material corresponding to their general level of development and to express themselves in writing and to participate actively in normal class work.

Subsection 3. Special education is given primarily in the content areas of Danish, arithmetic and mathematics, as well as in English and German.

Section 2. Special education may be provided in the following forms:

Subsection 1. Special education in the regular class where the pupils continue to receive instructions in their normal class but also receive assistance in certain lessons from special teachers.

Subsection 2. Special education in remedial reading groups where pupils receive part of their instruction in a particular subject in small groups but otherwise continue to follow the instruction in their own normal class.

Subsection 3. Special education in a remedial reading clinic where the pupils receive all their instruction in a particular subject in a clinic setting while continuing to follow instruction in their normal class in all other subjects.

Subsection 4. Special education in a full-time remedial class where the pupils are given special instruction in all their subjects, so that they are no longer members of their normal class.

Subsection 5. Private instruction where pupils individually receive part or all of their instruction in a particular subject but continue to follow instruction in their own class in all other subjects.

Section 8. When recommending pupils for special education in accordance with Section 2, the following procedure shall be observed:

Subsection 1. The Danish teacher refers the pupil with severe reading and spelling difficulties to the school psychologist for an examination. The initiative for such a step may also be taken by the child's other teachers, by the school doctor, by the parents, or by the pupils themselves. Prior to making the recommendation, the Danish teacher should discuss the pupil's situation with the other teachers, and in so doing should seek to clear up whether the handicap affects the child's general proficiency level and his/her well-being at school. The recommendation is made on a form which is forwarded through the head of the school with comments or observations from the school doctor.

Subsection 2. The school psychologist, possibly with the assistance of other experts, will conduct an investigation into the pupil's difficulties. This investigation will include conversation with the pupil, with the parents, and with the Danish teacher concerned. Finally, a report will be made and submitted to the head of the school and to the school doctor.

Subsection 3. With reference to this report, and after consultation with the parents, the school psychologist will make recommendations as to what form of special education should be provided or what other measures should be adopted by the school in order to help the pupil.

Subsection 4. A decision to refer a pupil to special education will be made by the teachers' committee of the school concerned, or upon its authorization and on the basis of the school psychologist's recommendation. The parents shall be informed of the decision which may be submitted to the school board committee for final approval.

Section 9.

Subsection 1. The school psychologist will follow the development of those pupils who have been referred to special education by, among other things, conferences at regular intervals with the teacher in charge of this education and possibly also with the parents and the student's teacher.

Subsection 2. On the basis of these discussions the school psychologist decides when special education shall be discontinued, reduced, or possibly intensified. If the pupil has received only part of the subject in question in the form of special education (see Section 2, subsections 1, 2, and 5), the school psychologist shall also confer with the class teacher of the subject in question.

Subsection 3. Pupils can be gradually guided back from remedial reading classes by allowing them to take part in both forms of instruction over a given period. Correspondingly, a pupil may continue in a remedial clinic (school clinic) after they have resumed their place in a normal class for instruction in the subject in question.

Section 11.

Subsection 1. If the pupil who is receiving special education moves to another school, even though this be a school other than a public primary school, the said school shall be informed as soon as possible as to what kind of special education the pupil has been receiving. This information can be given in connection with the "certificate of change of address". At the same time the report covering the school psychological examination will be returned to the school psychologist.

Subsection 2. If the pupil moves to a (private) school which is not served by the School Psychological Service, the school psychologist forwards a report of the most recent examination to the head of the school in question, unless the parents desire that the school shall be informed only in accordance with the provisions under Subsection 1.

Section 12. Should a pupil still require special education at the end of compulsory schooling, the school psychologist shall inform the parents of the opportunities for special education in the youth schools, in spare time education for adults, in organizations either in the care of handicapped persons or possibly within the specific type of training the pupil is seeking.

Section 13. The school shall assist pupils who are otherwise qualified so that difficulties in connection with reading and spelling do not cut them off from further education, and the provisions concerning dispensation from normal requirements shall be kept in mind.

In connection with such a circular, a more descriptive guideline and some reflections concerning premises in connection with the circular are also given to help the local authorities, teachers, and the school psychological offices. In these quidelines will be found details on the timing of the initiation of special education, on descriptions of the various forms of education, on the size and equipment of the rooms for the special education, on the training of teachers, etc.

Denmark

Socially and emotionally disturbed children in the folkschool

The Danish primary school has been described as the sieve through which most children have to pass during a period of their lives that is decisive to the development of their personalities. The primary school is, therefore, well suited to the employment of preventive and corrective measures. Socially and emotionally disturbed children in the school have not always been looked upon in this way. At one time, if such a child gave the school too many problems, the social system with its children's homes, etc. had to pick up responsibility for the child.

According to the newer concepts of the social welfare system from the middle 1960's, a system of family counseling developed. One of the objectives of this counseling was to help children, as far as possible, to stay in their family home, and to support the family in as many ways as possible .

Over the years it has been very much a matter of discussion whether or not there are more emotionally and socially disturbed children and youngsters in our country today than there were years ago. In my private opinion, there are more with open emotional and social problems. The modern technical systems for production in our country have a number of side effects. One of these is obviously that it is much more difficult, almost regardless of the economy of the family, for a child to grow up in harmony and to develop a mature personality. Furthermore, people in their daily life (both within, but mostly outside the school) are given the opportunities for more free and open expressions of the internal conflicts than was possible years ago. Our highly developed technical world, with its philosophy of "growth" and consumption, disregards the human side effects. We do not make decisions based on these considerations, but rather on the productivity achieved.

This is not the place to try to give answers to these very serious and dangerous questions. What we can do as school psychologists, first of all, is to try to influence the school as a total system and then do the best we can to provide good professional care of the disturbed child. Emotional problems have always existed in children; Danish schools have only recently had the opportunity to take the student's problems into proper consideration in the educational situation.

It was, therefore, a great step forward in 1969 when Parliament introduced a reform of elementary education programs in which the Ministry of Education was directed to promote the development of educational facilities for handicapped children so as to make them remain, as far as possible, in their normal school environment. In this connection, emphasis was placed on the opportunities provided by the folkschool to help emotionally and socially handicapped children, both by developing observational education and by improving the School Psychological Service.

The School Psychological Service was strengthened by giving state support for the salaries not only of school psychologists (i.e., educational psychologists) but also of clinical psychologists and social workers. These two professional groups were especially needed for the socially and emotionally disturbed children in the folkschool.

Another circular on observational education was issued from the Minister of Education in February, 1972. It describes a number of measures or facilities at the disposal of pupils who, on account of mental and social difficulties, are unable to get sufficient benefit from normal primary school education.

As in other types of education, the primary objective is to select the form which, at the same time, helps the pupil solve their problems and provides them with the greatest possible degree of association with the normal school environment. The Ministry emphasizes that observational education must not become a disciplinary measure. It must not "weaken the responsibility" of the individual teacher.

There are a number of important auxiliary aids and facilities involved, but they should never be used to solve the problems of the ordinary pupil. These problems are seen to be part of the everyday life of the school. The teacher, together with other students in the class, should be able to exercise an educational influence on a group of pupils in such a way as to help solve their social problems.

The circular states:

Section 1. The purpose of this form of education is to create the most favorable conditions possible for handicapped pupils to resume participation in the ordinary form of education.

Section 2. If the observational education for the pupils of a given school is to be approved, it is essential that:

1. The Consultant services in school psychology for the geographic area in question are (or can be expected to be) organized in such a way that satisfactory provision can be made for the necessary amount of observational education, including the provision for the assistance of specially qualified personnel (i.e., clinical psychologists and social workers).
2. Systematic efforts by the teaching staff of the school and the local education authorities have been made to promote the general well-being of the pupils attending the school. This should include such aspects as: the establishment of contact with the parents, the provision of appropriate information, mutual cooperation amongst the teaching staff, pupils' participation in the planning of the curriculum, as well as the total framework of the schools' activities.

The most common ways this education can be organized are described in the Section 3 of the circular:

1. Observational education in the class where pupils can continue to receive instruction in their own class but with the help of a special teacher during certain periods.
2. Observational clinics in which several pupils are given education in their own school, but outside their ordinary classes, in specific (or, if necessary, in all) subjects, but in such a way that their ties with their ordinary classes are maintained.
3. Observation schools where pupils from one or more boroughs are received for the purpose of providing education, full board, and lodging away from their homes and normal school environment.
4. Observation classes in which pupils from the borough schools are taught in all subjects, so that all ties with their normal classes are disrupted.
5. Day schools where pupils from one or more boroughs receive their education during the daytime but otherwise continue to live at home.
6. Private teaching where pupils receive individual instruction

at school and/or at home, possibly in combination with other forms of observational education.

After four years, this observational education has been introduced in most schools in Denmark. School psychologists find this kind of education very valuable. We do, however, again and again stress that there is a risk; that this kind of education can be a system of punishing the children in a new, smart, salespromoting wrapping. It can be misused to help a traditional school and its teaching go on unchanged because the children who are disturbing can be removed from the class and sent to the "observation clinic." It has to be very carefully thought through before this kind of education is initiated for a child; it has to be discussed carefully between all persons involved, including the parents and the highly qualified professional staff on the team working in the school psychological office.

School Psychology in a Period of Transition: the School Psychological Counseling

It is hoped that this information has given the reader some idea of the work done by the staff at "The School Psychological Office", or, as it has come to be called, "The School Psychological Counseling."

School Psychology is currently in a period of change, or perhaps more accurately, in a period of rapid transition. This transition corresponds to the new objectives of the role of the school in the society and is closely related to the very extensive administrative reforms going on in this country at the present time.

Very many changes in almost every sector of our country have taken place in accordance with plans worked out during the 1960's. All of these changes directly or indirectly interact with each other in such a way that, even for those of us working in and on these transitions, it is difficult to keep clear the general view. A short review of some of the most crucial areas in transition may give the reader more understanding of this topic.

1. The improvements of the special education in the folkschool within the 1960's resulted partly in establishing a number of remedial groups and special classes, most often as part of the regular school

(i.e., classes for the reading retarded, slow learners, CP classes, etc.). This resulted in a strongly critical attitude toward this segregation among groups of educationalists and psychologists and in some parts of the mass media. This segregation was regarded inhuman, and school psychology was criticized for labelling the children instead if looking into the teachers and the school and the total influence of the environment.

In some groups school psychologists were labelled as the "garbage collectors" of the school. They take away what the school evaluates as useless, what the school throws away. We are doing it without hesitation, after some sorting out of the "garbage" into a number of categories. The more kind critics called us "rag pickers", which I personally find more fair.

In this connection all kinds of testing was condemned by the same groups. Partly as a result of this and partly as a consequence of legislative amendments, there has been, and still is, a movement toward less segregation in the schools.

2. In 1970 a great nationwide reform in the administration of this country was introduced. Up to that time we had very many small boroughs and municipalities and some fifty counties. Larger units came out of this reform so that now we have only 14 counties and less than 300 municipalities.

The reasons for this were many: one of them was that a very far-reaching decentralization of the functions of the society was foreseen.

The former relatively strong, central directives coming from the Ministries in Copenhagen were to be replaced by local responsibilities making the 14 counties the superior units, with a number of responsibilities allocated to the local municipalities.

3. As a consequence of this reform, in April, 1975 the State introduced a new way of administering their subsidy to municipalities. Up to then the municipalities could directly have a certain percentage of their expenditures on special accounts refunded from the state (i.e., 50% of the salaries for personnel in the schools, 85% of some of the social expenses).

As of now, a system has been introduced whereby counties and municipalities are given an average of the former state support as a "lump sum". This amount is arrived at by what are called "objective criteria" for each municipality such as: the number of road-kilometers, the number of children under 7, the number of school age children, the number of people of pension age, etc.

The administration of this lump sum is fully the responsibility of the municipality within the restrictions laid down by the Parliament. Of course this means that the local political authorities are much more attentive to their expenses, as they determine what will be given local priority, e.g., a new public swimming pool or good school facilities.

4. From the middle of the 1960's a great State Commission has worked to prepare fundamental changes in our social welfare system. Two parts of this are of importance to the folkschool: its special education and the school psychological counseling staff.

First, it should be noted that all State schools and institutions for the handicapped have to be transferred to the responsibility and administration of the counties and municipalities. This in itself is a great reform, and some parts of it were put into force as of April 1, 1975. In connection with this administrative reform it has been decided that all education in these institutions after August 1, 1978 will have to be transferred from the county and municipal social welfare authorities and to the local educational authorities. That means that the institutions as such are the responsibility of social and health authorities, but that the schooling and education of the approximately 7,000 children and youngsters in these institutions is becoming the responsibility of the educational authorities.

Thereafter, all kinds of education, instruction, and special education given from early childhood up to the age of 18 are the responsibility of the educational authorities. Then you have a coherent system including all kinds of special education under one authority, regardless of the degree or kind of handicap. There is thus a unity in the responsibility for all basic education.

The discussion about whom to give the responsibility for what, whether it be the county or the municipality, has not yet finished. Since the School Psychological Counseling has the responsibility for supervision, etc. for the special education in the municipalities, it is obvious that this reform, which we support strongly, is of enormous importance for our work.

Another aspect of the great program of social welfare reform is new social and health assistance being given all citizens by municipal and county authorities.

Several Acts, both older and newer, concerning the Social Welfare System, e.g., the National Council for the unmarried mother, rehabilitation, pensions, etc. are being pulled together in one single piece of legislation: The Public Assistance Act, which was introduced on April 1, 1976. This Act provides the local authorities with a great deal of responsibility for carrying out preventive measures for children and youngsters in their area.

In each municipal social and health administrative unit, they have to build up teams of "counseling groups". Until this time a citizen has had to visit many public offices or branches to obtain the assistance they needed. In principle, everything is now the responsibility of the counseling groups. They will, if necessary, call for special help from the medical doctor, psychiatrist, lawyer, psychologist, etc. If the municipal counseling group does not have the necessary, qualified knowledge available, this can be obtained from the county social and health system. The client, on the other hand, may also be transferred to become the responsibility of the county program.

It is obvious that even relatively small municipal systems require assistance from psychologists. Thus psychologists will be needed all over, both for their work in the schools as well as in the social welfare service. Many smaller municipalities, and more than 80% of them have less than 20,000 inhabitants, do not find it desirable to appoint psychologists both in the schools and in the social-health department.

Furthermore, most children who are in need of help and assistance from the social-health department are already well known in the School Psychological Counseling, especially in connection with the observational education given in the schools. Therefore it is natural to establish a close collaboration between the staff in the social-health and in the School Psychological Counseling departments. A commission has just now provided guidelines for this, another factor which forces school psychologists to be in transition.

The Organization of the School Psychological Work

The work of the School Psychological Counseling has, of course, to be looked upon in view of all the above mentioned, major reforms. We are really in a period of transition.

In 1972 school psychology was developed rather unevenly in the country. There was some service everywhere, but the level was rather low in some places due to the number of people employed. Most of the developing suburban municipalities around Copenhagen had a high standard of service, as did many provincial towns. Even so, it is worth emphasizing that everywhere in the country it was possible for teachers and parents to consult a qualified professional who had considerable working experience concerning a child's most varied problems in connection with their years in the folkschool.

As a consequence of the above-mentioned administrative reforms and the new obligations for the schools, it became apparent that the single, working educational psychologist could not have the necessary knowledge to cover everything coming up in a professionally responsible way. Examination, evaluation, counseling, and decision-making had to be based on teamwork between a staff with differentiated knowledge and experience. The small municipality with perhaps 600 to 1,000 children in its schools would not be able to provide for all of the counseling needs in the schools. Some way or another, greater units had to be established.

The Ministry of Education appointed a commission, in which the Association of Danish School Psychologists was represented,to work out suggestions for the future organization of this work in the country. In all of them it was decided that a Counseling should cover, at the minimum, about 5,000 pupils including the normal age groups in Danish schools, i.e., from kindergarten class up to the end of grade 10. If there were less than that number of students, it would not be possible to have all the various needed professionals represented on the team.

The two most commom ways of organizing this work are:

1. Municipalities, towns, etc. with 5,000 or more in school age

children will always have a School Psychological Counseling of their own.

2. A number of smaller municipalities, each having their own school system but with a total of about 5,000 school age children, will go together to make a School Psychological Counseling covering all of their schools.

The State has the responsibility to see that no school child in this country is without the assistance of a qualified counseling concerning their possible need for special education and other kinds of special assistance.

According to the regulation set for the staffing of such a School Psychological Counseling, the following are suggested:

1 Chief school psychologist
2 assistant school psychologists
2 clinical psychologists
1 social worker
- -
1 speech-hearing counselor
1 counselor for the mentally retarded
1 counselor for the backward readers
1 counselor for the emotionally and socially handicapped
1 counselor for the school dropout
1-3 counselors for special classes, and possibly
1 psychiatric advisor

The people mentioned under the dotted line are employed part-time as advisors with the remainder of their time spent in teaching acivities. As the municipalities have the obligation to establish the necessary and prescribed special education, a system has now been established which enables the local school authorities to take over all kinds of special activities.

As it is obvious that not every child can be given the needed education locally, the plan also provides for each of our 14 counties to have a county school psychologist. They have no direct contact with clients, but have the responsibility to the county level to organize education for those relatively few children whose educational needs cannot be taken care of locally. An educational center for such children has already been established in each county.

The whole set up will not be logical and complete until around 1978, when the municipalities and counties take over the responsibility for the present State schools for exceptional children and youth.

The Present Situation

As a result of all this, today the country has 188 School Psychological Counselings. The authorities are not yet obliged to appoint and support the full staff previously described. Some parts of the country have found that less staff is enough for their purposes and the development is also restrained by the lack of capactiy to train some of the professional groups. Today 450 school psychologists are employed full time, with around 100 clinical psychologists and a slightly smaller number of social workers. The schools employ by far the greatest number of psychologists in Denmark, and this should continue to be true in the future.

Qualifications

To be a psychologist requires a Teacher's Certificate (4 years beyond the General Certificate of Education) and a graduate degree in psychology. Very extraordinarily, a psychologist without a Teacher's Certificate can be appointed as a school psychologist; to date, only 2 persons have received this dispensation. To be a Clinical Psychologist requires a graduate degree in psychology and an additional 2 years of clinical, working experience under the supervision of one or more approved, clinical institutions.

An interesting detail in the function of the school psychologist is that all assisting school psychologists are obliged to teach 5 lessons a week to children. For several years this requirement has been waived because of a shortage in the profession. This teaching can, in principle, be given in any subject for which the school psychologist is qualified. Very often it is given in special education. This requirement is very strongly demanded by the Danish Teachers' Union. They want us to not forget the situation in the classroom.

Denmark

The Education of School Psychologists

The very first School Psychologists in Denmark were teachers who had, in addition, taken the Master of Arts in Psychology from the University of Copenhagen. It was a 7 to 8 year program, heavily emphasizing the foundations of research in psychology. It did not adequately prepare one for work in the schools. For this reason in 1944 a special program for training school psychologists was established at the University of Copenhagen. In a three year plan of study, this program gave teachers the degree of "cand. psych."

At the same time, the demand for psychologists increased in other areas in our society. Quite a number of young people without teacher's certificate also joined this program, even if they wanted to work in areas outside of the school. The curriculum which had been originally established to help psychologists work in the folkschool was much too narrow for these new groups of often rather young people. Therefore, in 1960 the whole program was changed. A curriculum requirement of 5 1/2-6 years of study was developed. After this basic program, the students could go in various directions such as pedagogical psychology. The degree, however, is still called cand. psych.

Meanwhile, it was found that this program gave the experienced and mature teacher a much too long study time for their work as a school psychologist. Very few teachers started this program, and the folkschool was in desperate need of school psychologists. Therefore it was decided, against the wishes of the working school psychologists, to establish an "emergency education" in educational psychology with a one year curriculum. This program was in every respect unsatisfactory and the school psychologists and others worked hard to bring this training to an end and to have something better introduced. We agreed that on top of a teacher's certificate, 5 1/2 to 6 years at the university was too much, especially since one third of the modern teacher-training curriculum is also relevant for the training of a school psychologist.

Denmark is the only country in Europe that has a special high school for further training of folkschool teachers. When this high school was given the status of "University", graduate studies in various subjects were introduced. In 1963 a graduate program in psychology was established (cand. pæd psych.). A teacher can enter this graduate program if, in addition to their teacher's certificate, they have followed a one year program in pedagogy and psychology. The curriculum for this graduate program is built upon what the student has already taken in their basic training and in their one year advanced program in psychology and pedagogy.

The teacher who goes through this program has a basic training in the relevant subjects that is equivalent to two years in a normal graduate program in psychology. Therefore, in a three year curriculum it is possible to obtain a fully satisfactory training program for a psychologist. This graduate program is directed primarily toward the work of a school psychologist, and the candidates (cand. pæd. psych.) enjoy in all respects the same rights as the candidates from our Universities (cand. psych.).

In Denmark it is not possible, as it is in many other countries, to follow a structured doctoral program at a university. The PhD in psychology in Denmark is a title you obtain if, after you have graduated and on your own, you produce a doctoral dissertation, submit it to the university for evaluation, and, if accepted, later publicly defend it. Within the area of psychology, there is obviously not very much interest in obtaining the title of PhD, because less than 30 persons since 1884 have earned this doctorate. There are no PhD's in Denmark among practicing school psychologists. It should be pointed out, however, that the requirements for both cand. psych. and cand. pæd. psych. are very close to what most countries have for obtaining the title of PhD.

Professional Organizations

The Association of Danish Psychologists was founded in 1947. In the course of time, however, School Psychologists found that they had need for a special organization of their own, so the Association of Danish School Psychologists was founded in 1956. Today it has almost 400 members. The negotiations for wages and working conditions for the school psychologists are taken care of by The Teachers Trade Union. Therefore, a formal "Agreement of Collaboration" exists between The Teachers Union and our organization. All teachers and school psychologists in Denmark are civil servants. Since 1970 there has also been a close connection between The Association of Danish Psychologists and our organization. There is a monthly coordinating meeting between board members of our two organizations and the intentions are to find the favorable time to join together again.

Wages

As Danish school psychology had its origin in the folkschool and its teachers, it has for historic reasons been natural for wages and working conditions for school psychologists to be negotiated by the Teachers Union and built in as an integrated part of the wage scale of the folkschool.

An assistant school psychologist in the system is placed on the same wage level as the deputy-principal in a big school. As of April 1, 1976, their starting salary was 9,500 kr monthly; after 9 years it increases to 10,500 kr monthly. The chief school psychologist in the system is on the same wage level as the principal of a folkschool, but there are some variations in connection with the number of school children who are covered by the Counseling of which they are the leader. The typical salary (as of April 1, 1976) was around 12,500 kr monthly.

The wage negotiations for the clinical psychologists working at the School Psychological Counseling are made by The Association of Danish Psychologists. Their monthly pay varies according to the amount of their experience, from 8,000 kr up to 12,000 kr monthly.

As indicated earlier, until April 1, 1976, the municipalities had 50% of the staff salaries in their schools refunded from the State. Now they have so-called "lump sums" covering many different areas, but not "earmarked" for special purposes. The consequences of this could lead to the municipalities becoming more cautious with regard to the number of persons they employ. Up till now there has been, in general, noticeable reservation in appointing staff members for the School Psychological Counselings. The reason may be that, in many places, the Counselings have been understaffed and during these same years they have been given increased responsibilities.

Trends of Development in the next ten years

It is most likely that the total number of School Psychological Counselings will remain almost constant. As psychologists are trained and graduate, all of the Counselings will be staffed up to the limit set by the state regulations. That means we can expect 100 more school psychologists and 200 more clinical psychologists to be appointed.

This staff is supposed to cover the work stated in the regulations as of today. But, as mentioned earlier, with all the reforms gradually coming in during the 1970's, the folkschool, within another ten years, will have the responsibility for special education and other special assistance in preschool age and also for all exceptional children who are educated today in State schools and institutions. Therefore a considerable increase in staff is expected for the School Psychological Counselings within the next ten years.

School psychology in Denmark is not just a service agency, passively taking over all kinds of obligations transferred to it. We first of all feel a responsibility towards children, individuals as well as groups. Therefore we strive to be an active professional group, constructively participating in and possibly influencing the total situation of the child in this country. We do not manage well enough, but we try to be aware of things going on which influence the child and its possibilities in our changing society. But it is not always easy to be aware enough. We always have to ask ourselves: What are we doing? To what are we devoting our time? What does the society use us for?

We also find that school psychologists have an obligation to take part in discussions on general education; we have to participate in the process. If not, we could easily turn out to be some sort of opportunists or defeatists, just "washing our hands" and "doing our best". Clearly spoken: we ought never to work in such a way that we help a school system which could well have outlived its days, to limp on. But neither should we forget that it is our duty to assist individuals, children, parents, and teachers who might be squeezed by a system. We have to work for necessary changes in existing systems, at the same time realizing that we deal with "here-and-now" obligations.

"Here-and-now" you have to work for fulfilling an instant purpose of helping the child to develop into a mature adult, who in a social context has the ability to live with such constraints as life puts upon them. Help them to develop in such a way that they can manage to use themselves in almost every inherited and generated possibility to a maximum potential after their own wish, and in consideration of the total situation of which they are a part.

How do we manage to develop children in such a way that they will not just slide into the existing situation, resigning themselves to their fate or in such a way that they do not turn into a piece of driftwood? How can we manage to make them active, creative, and reshaping adults? If you have this as your main objective and work consciously toward it, there are almost no limitations in the number of conventional and unconventional ways you can and must use. This is true because every single child, apart from some fundamental common traits, is something very special. The totality of the child has to be the basis for your work.

With this as the general objective, the work presumably will develop along the following principle lines:

1. The team working at the School Psychological Counseling will probably get more involved in the general work of the school than is typically the case today. Questions of mileau, methods in the classes, more work with the teachers as a group, will be some of the tasks.

2. We will increasingly be responsible for, or participate in, local pilot and experimental educational programs, not only in special education, but also in the socalled normal classes.

3. The School Psychological Counseling will continuously play a very central part in special education. This education will probably change in means and ways in the course of time, but for both the present groups in the folkschools as well as those returning from the State schools, integrated as well as segregated special education will have to be established.

4. The involvement with preschool children will increase. Together with the medical and social service, nurses, day nurseries, The School Psychological Counseling, on behalf of the school system, become partners in programs for high risk children.

5. The staff at the Counselings in the schools will become still

more involved in children with social and emotional disturbance. The clinical, but probably not the psychiatric, element in the therapy of classes, families, and groups of children will probably increase considerably.

Generally speaking, during the next decade legislative amendments and educational practice will insure that the folkschool, and consequently the School Psychological Counseling, will have the responsibility for any special educational care needed. This will be extended to any child from birth up to the end of compulsory education, in public as well as private schools. This will also be the case with those who thereafter voluntarily participate in education and training under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, normally up to the age of 18 or 19, and for some, up to the age of 21. All of these age groups should, if needed, have available professionally competent, pedagogic and psychologic examinations, counseling, and treatment.

The school and its related agencies is not able, by itself, to insure that the totality of the child (their situation as a whole) can be taken sufficiently into consideration. This can only be done with an increased collaboration with all other agencies, such as health and social welfare, which, according to the new legislation affecting them, have very extensive obligations toward children and youngsters in their area.

The folkschool, with a well-staffed team at its Counseling and a well-staffed Health and Social Welfare Service has, in the next decade, the possibility of establishing preventive programs with therapeutic results far beyond what is commonly practiced today.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN NORWAY

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Although some present Norwegian colleges can trace their history back to the early Middle Ages as ecclesiastical schools, a general compulsory public school was based on the Education Acts of 1736, 1827, 1848, and 1860. Provisions to meet the needs of handicapped children developed more slowly, but special schools for deaf, blind, and subnormal children were established during the 19th century. Education for children in these categories between the ages of 7 to 16 became compulsory in 1881.

Selection and assessment procedures of children in need of special education was first done by psychiatrists; Oslo employed the first school psychiatrist in 1923. Child guidance clinics were started in the 1930's and the first child psychologist was Åse Gruda Skard. In 1933, in a letter to the School Inspector of Oslo, she urged that psychological counseling service be given to children in the Oslo schools. "The field we are planning to cover," she wrote, "is what the Americans call child guidance." Charlotte Bühler established a clinic working in the field of educational psychology in Oslo in 1938 which functioned until April, 1940. The rapid expansion of school psychological services in Norway, however, was to take place after the war.

The Current Status of Professional School Psychology

The statutory provisions for the school psychological service are laid down in the Education Act passed by the Norwegian Parliament on June 13, 1975. Section 9 describes Educational Psychological Service as follows (Lov...1975):

1. Educational pyschological service shall be formed in convenient districts and can be organized by one or more municipalities. The Director of Schools can propose how a county should be divided into service districts. Geographical borders and location of offices are to be decided upon by the municipal councils after their educational committees have made a recommenda-

tion. The decisions made by the municipal councils are to be formally recognized by the Director of Schools. The educational psychological service is administratively placed under the municipal education committee or in the case where there is an intermunicipal organization, by a board under terms of the intermunicipal agreement.

2. The Ministry (of Education) is to make further regulations. The Ministry has subsequently submitted other regulations concerning the educational psychological service with regard to staffing and refunding of municipal expenses. The regulations specify that the professional staff should include a psychologist, an educationalist, a psychiatric social worker, and a teacher of special education. The refund from the State is based on a ratio of one position per 800 pupils in the primary school. The state refund for municipal expenses ranges from 25% to 85%, depending on the economy of the municipality. These regulations are intended to insure that the school psychological service is formed into teams containing adequate interdisciplinary expertise. If the school population in one municipality is too small to arrive at a sound economic base for interdisciplinary teams, several municipalities are encouraged to enter into an intermunicipal agreement in order to form such teams. The typical team consists of a psychologist, a psychiatric social worker, and a teacher of special education; the working model of the team can be described as an interdisciplinary approach. The trend is toward a flexible division of roles within the team most appropriate to each individual case. There is also a strong emphasis on the social aspects of the case and on cooperation with appropriate municipal agencies to insure that a social network will effectively operate around the families in trouble.

The Professional Role and Status of the Psychologist

The professional role of the psychologist is regulated by a National Law on Psychology which was passed by the Norwegian Parliament on March 9, 1973. The law states that the title "Psychologist" can only be used after registration and issuance of a public license from the Ministry of Health and Social Services. These regulations also apply to the field of school psychology. The basic requirement to obtain a public license is 6-7 years of comprehensive study at the Institute of Psychology at either the University of Oslo or the University of Bergen. Further professional post-graduate training can also be demanded by the Ministry. Applicants for licensure as a psychologist with a different kind of professional training must have their examinations and curricula examined by the Ministry. The Law on Psychology states that the King in Council should appoint a State Council of Psychology which consists of seven members; at least four of the members shall be psychologists and one shall be a High Court Judge.

Recommendations for a State Law on Psychology were forwarded to the Nordic Council in 1956 by a committee of Nordic psychologists. During its 6th session in November of 1958, the Nordic Council issued recommendations to the Nordic government regarding: (1) the licensing of psychologists, (2) the protection against the misuse of psychological methods, and (3) an inter-Nordic labor-market for psychologists. The Council appointed Norway to be the coordinating country in the preparatory work. The case was on the agenda for the Nordic Council in 1968 and again in 1970; as it seemed that inter-Nordic regulations for the professional conduct of psychologists were not to be passed in other Nordic countries in the foreseeable future, the Norwegian Parliament passed the Law on Psychology in 1973 upon the recommendation of the Ministry of Health and Social Services (Psykologloven, 1973).

Number of School Psychologists and Psychologist-to-Pupil Ratios

The post-war period has seen a rapid growth in the number of psychologists employed in school psychological service. The number of school psychologists as of June 1, 1975 was 259. The great majority, about 85%, are graduates of the Psychological Institutes of the Universities of Oslo and Bergen. Another 15% have graduated from the Institute of Pedagogics at the University of Oslo. The numbers in Tables 1 and 2 are taken from the official statistics issued by the Ministry of Education. Table 1 shows the increase in number of school psychological centers and number of school psychologists in the period from 1966 to 1975.

Table 1

Numbers of School Psychologists and School Psychological Centers in Norway from 1966 to 1975.

Year	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
School Psychologists	118	131	144	157	168	188	203	227	242	259
School Psychological Centers	70	78	81	85	88	91	93	105	113	115

(From, "Official Statistics on School Psychological Service", Nyhus, 1975)

Table 2 shows the distribution of school psychological centers, the number of psychologists, the number of pupils in primary education, and the ratio of psychologists to pupils distributed over Norway's 20 counties as of June 1, 1975 (see Nyhus, 1975).

It should be kept in mind that the school psychologist rarely operates alone, so in most cases each school psychologist represents a school psychological team. The reader is referred to the previously mentioned figure of 800 pupils per professional member of the team as the basis for State refund of municipal expenses.

Functions and Responsibilities of the School Psychological Service

The Education Act of 1975 lays down the principle of integration of pupils in the local community school. The responsibility of the municipality to secure special education and training programs for handicapped and subnormal children with special needs is extended down to infancy and is continued on until adult age. The school psychological service is intended to play a major role in this integration process; this is the main reason for providing and strengthening these services.

Some explanation to the foreign reader may be needed about the divisions of responsibilities between the State and the municipalities in securing adequate care and special education for handicapped and disabled children before the Education Act of 1975. The population of Norway is 4 million people, thinly scattered over an area approximately one-and-

Table 2

Official Norwegian Ministry of Education Statistics

June 1, 1975

Counties	School Psychological Centers	School Psychologists	Primary Pupils (Ages 7-16)	Ratio of Psychologists to Pupils
Østfold	5	11	33,861	1:3078
Oslo	1	27	43,443	1:1609
Akershus	11	27	54,778	1:2029
Hedmark	6	7	22,692	1:3242
Oppland	7	13	23,952	1:1842
Buskerud	8	15	28,347	1:1890
Vestfold	5	15	27,475	1:1832
Telemark	5	12	22,640	1:1887
A.-Agder	4	6	12,099	1:2017
V.-Agder	6	8	20,228	1:2529
Rogaland	6	18	43,272	1:2404
Bergen	5	15	31,858	1:2124
Hordaland	9	11	26,630	1:2421
Sogn og Fjordane	4	6	15,183	1:2531
Møre og Romsdal	9	12	35,387	1:2949
S.-Trøndelag	3	12	34,850	1:2904
N.-Trøndelag	4	6	19,879	1:3313
Nordland	8	18	34,837	1:1953
Troms	3	11	22,104	1:2009
Finnmark	6	9	12,917	1:1435
Nationwide Total	115	259	566,432	1:2187

(From, "Official Statistics on School Psychological Service", Nyhus, 1975)

a-half the size of Great Britain. The rural communities of Norway are rather small and stable, and consequently many children are educated in very small local schools. Adequate provisions (as laid down by the Education Act) for handicapped children were not easy to carry out in sparsely populated rural areas. As a consequence, the State had, up until that time, the responsibility for the education of subnormal and disabled children. This resulted in a nationwide policy which had set up centralized schools of special education in the various regions of Norway. These schools were run on a residential basis and the children lived away from their families except during school holidays. This segregation model has, during the last decade, been under attack from various sources.

Parental organizations of handicapped children, for example, argued that children less capable of new social adjustments were exposed to the pressures of being segregated from their local community school and their families. Political groups strongly attacked segregation strategies and pointed out that vast resources were spent on centralized state schools with doubtful measurable effects. Psychologists and psychiatrists pointed out the need for integration into the local community and were concerned with the enormous difficulties related to the reintegration process for children who had been so segregated. Different groupings, polticians from left to right, educators and psychologists, local politicians, all agreed that integration strategies for handicapped children should be tried out, and major changes in three areas took place.

1. The Norwegian Ministry of Education established a Research Council in Education consisting of psychologists and educators under an Act passed by the Norwegian Parliament in 1954. This Council experimented with curricula and system changes which would allow the ordinary class to cope with a wider range of children. Changes included: smaller classes, division of classes in main subjects, extra teachers, introduction of teaching methods and materials allowing for a greater degree of differentiation and individualization in the classroom, etc. School psychological service was also strengthened through the use of strong interdisciplinary teams consisting of psychologists, educators, and psychiatric social workers. These teams worked in rural, sparsely populated areas, but were also given the necessary resources in order to test the hypotheses that integration of handicapped and disabled children was possible.
2. The investigation carried out by the Research Council verified their hypotheses, and their recommendations, together with the current political discussions, resulted in the Education Act of 1975, which set forth the principle of integration in primary education (7-16 years). The responsibilities for handicapped and subnormal children were transferred from the State to the local municipalities.

3. Modelled after the strong inter-disciplinary teams in the research phase, the necessary statutory provisions were passed by the Parliament in the Education Act of 1975 to strengthen school psychological service.

Summary of Functions and Responsibilities for the School Psychological Service (Føresegner, 1975):

A. Pre-School Age: (0 - 6 years)
    1. To register and diagnose children in need of special training programs and stimulating programs. To provide counseling and consultation on treatment and training programs for handicapped children.
    2. To consult with the administration and personnel of Kindergarten and Pre-school facilities.
    3. To consult with the personnel and the parents in health agencies.
    4. To consult with social service agencies.
    5. To provide general consultation for public authorities for organizations and for parents.

B. Primary School Age: (7-16 years)
    1. To provide counseling service related to starting school and to provide strategies of meeting individual needs in the beginning phase.
    2. To provide counseling examinations and treatment to individual pupils and their parents, and to search into the social network to find curative approaches for learning, emotional, and social problems.
    3. To counsel and consult with school administrators and teachers about teaching and about organizational and administrative problems in general, or in relation to special pupil difficulties. For example, the assessment of curricula and subjects in classroom and home teaching; problems related to individualization; formation of groups; preventive approaches; cooperative planning and advice on equipment, methods, materials, etc.
    4. To counsel and consult when the student leaves primary education and goes into higher education.

5. To consult with health and social service agencies and with special institutions in the district, providing advice in treatment and preventive tasks.

C. Further Education: (17 onwards)
   1. To counsel and consult with the school authorities in the county and in the municipalities concerning teachers on both the act of teaching and organizational and administrative problems as they relate to both special and general pupil problems.
   2. To counsel and provide treatment for pupils, parents, and teachers in relation to the problems of individual pupils.
   3. To cooperate and consult with the proper authorities (using both a treatment and a curative orientation) about the needs for jobs and vocational counseling for pupils with special needs and problems.
   4. To counsel and consult with health and social service agencies and, in some cases, with special institutions on programs of treatment and prevention. To consult with public and private agencies that provide care for youth, emphasizing both treatment and prevention.

D. Adult Education:
   1. To provide consultation services to education centers, labor force authorities, and special institutions related to treatment or prevention programs.
   2. To provide direct counseling and treatment when the individual is a former client of the school psychological service.

The Relationship of School Psychological Service to Other Advisory Services in the Primary School

The Education Act and Regulations coming from the Ministry of Education further demand an Educational Advisory Service and a Social Educational Service to operate at the primary school level.

1. Educational Advisory Service:
   The regulations from the Ministry of Education state that each municipality shall have an educational advisory service organized under the chief educational officer. The advisory educa-

tional service can be organized together with the school psychological service or can be organized as a separate service, when this is found convenient. Cooperation between the two services is demanded when separate organizations are formed. A cooperative committee shall be formed in each municipality with representatives from: the education committee, teacher organizations, and the school psychological service. The chief educational officer is represented on the committee which shall be the consulting body to the educational advisory service in the municipality. The educational advisory service is intended to strengthen the educational development within the curricula, teaching methods, techniques and materials by working with the teachers and headmasters in the primary school.

2. School Counselors and Social Teachers:
   The roles of both the school counselors and social teachers are described in the regulations from the Ministry as "Social Educational Service". Their main tasks are: counseling with individual pupils relating to problems in their daily school situation, helping the pupils choose curricula and subjects, providing information about further education related to jobs and labor market, etc. The counselors shall work closely with the school psychological service and the educational advisory service.
3. The County Child Guidance Clinic:
   Under the health authorities, a child guidance clinic is also formed in each county. The child guidance clinic is staffed with: psychiatrists, medical doctors, clinical psychologists, psychiatric social workers, and teachers in special education. This clinic works mainly on an out-patient model with consultant services to: the local health authorities, health stations and the school psychological service. Psychiatrists are not employed in the school psychological service but are available on a consultant basis, mainly through the county child guidance clinic. Every effort is made to treat children and their families in their local environment; with some severe cases, where

the social network does not operate properly and where general resources are low, children can be referred to residential treatment centers run by the county child guidance clinic. Prolonged individual and family psychotherapy will normally take place in the child guidance clinic. Short-term therapeutic tasks, including family therapy, are usually performed in the school psychological centers.

4. The Referral System:
The school psychological service has an open referral system and can be called upon by the individual teacher, the headmaster, medical doctors, and practitioners in the health and social services. In these instances when a more formal diagnosis and assessment are required, the referring agencies must have a formal consent from the parents before the child is referred. If a formal consent is not obtained, however, various consultant roles towards these agencies can still be carried out. The pupils and the parents can call directly on the service. Most referrals, however, come from the regular conferences in the various schools where there are representatives from the school staff, health and social services, and the school psychological service. An interdisciplinary approach is then planned with an appropriate division of roles. When a child or family is referred to the school psychological service, an individual contract is made with the child and parents, and if necessary also with the teacher and the school.

Summary Discussion of the Methods of Approach and the Consequences for the Professional Role of the School Psychologist

The development of the school psychological service in Norway has been closely related to the over-all trends in general mental health, social welfare, and total school policy. The three main developmental lines have been:

1. An extension of the resources in the local community, enabling it to serve as a developmental environment for a large number of handicapped children, youth, and adults (integration);

2. An extension of the responsibility for both the schools and the school psychological services for handicapped children, both before and after the period of primary school;
3. A decentralization of treatment resources, the provision of treatment outside institutions, and the coordination of the total counseling and treatment resources in the local community. The most influential framework for this model of approach has probably been that of Gerald Caplan with his model of preventive mental health approaches described in An Approach to Community Mental Health (1961) and Principles of Preventive Psychiatry (1964). Under this model, primary prevention takes place in the educational setting by generally improving educational resources and by focusing on potential crisis points. Secondary prevention occurs in a variety of settings but primarily in the educational setting. Tertiary prevention (which also occurs in a variety of settings) tries to help in the rehabilitation of children who have emerged from treatment in order to keep them from having to return to these programs.

The trend within Norwegain psychology has helped it to develop from a specialist's model toward the general psychologist who can perform a general role wherein a large variety of methods are applied. There is a general tendency away from individual psychotherapy toward a concentration on social factors. The crisis intervention model has also been influential in this context.

In 1970 a merger took place between the Norwegian Association of School Psychologists and the Norwegian Psychological Association and an intensive post-graduate professional training program has been carried out within the Psychological Association to create a general role for the psychologist by increasing their general competence. The common role that seems to emerge is the role of the district or community psychologist where insight into clinical psychology, educational psychology, social psychology, and social learning theories are needed. The Committee for Specialist Qualifications and Professional Post-graduate Training of the Norwegian Psychological Association (1975) recommends:

> The more the psychologist limits and specializes his method of approach, the more he is dependent on a differentiated service apparatus. This stresses the need for other specialists to do the referral. Relationships between urbanizing the society, specialization of the professions, and the dependence on a strongly developed and differentiated service apparatus are clearly illustrated within the medical profession and with health services. The same kind of development can be seen within the school sector. In the rural districts the differentiated professional service institutions are non-existant and the psychologist must, in this setting, take the responsibility for varied tasks that demand varied insight into and utilization of different psychological methods. In rural areas the psychologist must be responsible for individual therapeutic tasks; he must function as a counselor and consultant in the school system, must work in cooperation with health centers and the school psychological service, and must be involved in administrative processes.

The committee concludes that district or community psychologists will need professional training to enable them to perform a wide and general psychological role. Professional psychology in Norway has been strengthened by the introduction of a State Law on Psychology and by public registration and licensing. At the same time, a longer, more general and comprehensive university education, which is followed by professional post-graduate training, has been established. These two basic requirements have been necessary to establish a general status for the school psychologist equal to that enjoyed in the health, social, and private sectors.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN SWEDEN

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A Brief History of the Use of Psychological Services in Schools in Sweden

The first statement concerning the utilization of psychological services in the school in Sweden was officially issued by the School Commission of 1946. At that time the Swedish school system was organized quite differently than it is now.

The need for psychological services was due mainly to the fact that many children couldn't satisfactorily utilize the education in the ordinary classroom. The school needed help to diagnose those children with difficulties before they were sent to special classes or to institutions outside the ordinary school, such as special schools for the mentally retarded. The School Commission of 1946 suggested that appointments for school psychologists be paid for by the state and created in different regions of Sweden. The tasks for these school psychologists were suggested to be mainly diagnostic: testing readiness for school attendance, testing intellectually retarded children, and testing and consulting about emotionally disturbed children.

The Commission also suggested that the school psychologist had the right to choose suitable teachers as their part-time assistants, especially for certain kinds of testing. Although these suggestions did not lead to much immediate action on the part of the Ministry of Education, some local communities started to use school psychologists early in 1950. The first appointment of a school psychologist by the National Board of Education took place in 1953, and in 1953 the first two school psychologists serving larger regions were established on an experimental basis.

The School Commission of 1957 was the first to describe how to utilize psychological services in the schools and suggested an organization of the work of a school psychologist which is still valid. Although this Commission considered the most important aspect of the work to be diagnosis, they also emphasized that it should not be limited to children with problems. Instead, the school psychologist's skills should be directed to all children in the school and thus be prophylactic.

The Swedish School System

Basic education in Sweden is provided through a nine-year compulsory-comprehensive school. The Swedish Education Act was passed by the Riksdag, or Swedish Parliament, in 1962 and entitles all children to attend comprehensive school for nine years. Briefly, the goals of this school are: to impart knowledge, to develop skills, and (in collaboration with the pupil's home) to provide for social education. There are nine grades in the comprehensive-compulsory school which are divided into three levels: the junior level (grades 1-3), the middle level (grades 4-6), and the senior level (grades 7-9).

The first marks in the comprehensive school are awarded at the end of the spring term in grade 3. Similar grades are then given at the end of grades 6 and 7. Pupils in grades 8 and 9 receive marks at the end of each term. A comprehensive "school leaving certificate" at the end of grade 9 entitles one to go on to upper secondary school.

The integrated upper secondary school comprises some twenty "lines" or programs of study lasting either two or three years (grades 10-11 or 10-12). The majority of the lines are further subdivided; some are more practical, some are more theoretical, etc. The integrated upper secondary school is a voluntary school. However, almost 90% of the school population today goes on to further studies upon completion of their nine years of compulsory schooling.

The responsibility for education is shared by the State, primary municipalities, county council municipalities, and a few private schools. All comprehensive schools in Sweden and most of the upper secondary schools are governed by the municipal council of the primary (local) municipalities. Every municipality has a local education committee elected by the municipal council for a period of three years, and they have the responsibility to oversee the local school program. Each county has a board of education serving as a regional school authority for the State.

The National Board of Education (SÖ) is the central national authority in charge of the Swedish School System. As an arm of the Swedish

Government, which is represented primarily by the Ministry of Educational and Cultural Affairs, SÖ is responsible for the overall coordination, planning, and efficient operation of the schools including carrying out educational research and development as well as providing information, advice, and services to (and on behalf of) the whole Swedish school system. The Riksdag determines educational matters by passing laws on: educational structure and goals, principles and guidelines for the contents and organization of education, and educational appropriations.

All schools run by primary and county council municipalities are financed in varying degree by State grants. The State, for example, pays teachers' salaries and determines pupil-teacher ratios. The municipalities pay the salaries of school psychologists and since there are no central rules determining the pupil-school psychologist ratios, this varies a great deal from one municipality to another.

The Current Status of the School Psychologist in the School Organization

School psychologists are, as has been said before, a relatively new category of school personnel. They take part in the pupil welfare program which is designed for all of the pupils in school. The total number of school psychologists in the country as a whole has gradually risen over the past 15 years. This rising demand for mental health services in schools has been parallelled by growth in several other sectors, including the hospitals and industry.

The government level.

The Pupil Welfare Bureau (S 6) of the National Board of Education (SÖ) includes three sections: Social Medicine, School Psychology, and Study and Vocational Guidance. The school psychology section consists of two school psychologists. Their duties are mainly administrative and include: the initiation of research and development, the provision of information and conferences for county school psychologists, assistance with the organization of central in-service training facilities for municipal school psychologists, and advice and service on questions of a psychological nature coming either from other parts of the National Board of Education or from the schools throughout the country.

Regional level.

Every county board of education has a county school psychologist employed by the State. Since 1972, there have been 24 county school psychologists in Sweden. They organize regional in-service training programs both for municipal school psychologists and for other school workers, pupils, and parents. They assist local school psychologists when necessary. They also assist in and/or initiate the developmental work at the regional or local level and promote as rapid an expansion as possible of mental health services in schools throughout their counties.

Local level.

School psychologists working in the local municipalities, unlike the teaching staff, are paid by the municipalities. Both the lack of State funding and central rules defining the scope of school psychology work has been a disadvantage. Financial resources vary from one municipality to another as, of course, do opinions concerning what kind of psychological help schools ought to receive. As a result, both the working conditions and the qualifications of school psychologists vary a great deal from one municipality to another.

The number of school psychologists.

In 1975, nearly 500 psychologists worked in the Swedish schools. Some of them have part-time assignments, a condition which occurs most frequently in the big cities. This equates to about 400 full-time school psychologists, each of whom are typically responsible for about 3,000 pupils (with variations from about 2,000 to 11,000 pupils). This also means that, on the average, the school psychologist has to work with 270 teachers in 17 different school units. The greatest distance between any two schools is generally about 30 kilometers. The working conditions for the school psychologist are thus not too good. Traveling, and working with different teachers and students takes a great deal of time, which makes it difficult to do the work one feels needs to be done.

The Training of School Psychologists in Sweden

The basic degree for assistant psychologists.

All Swedish psychologists, no matter what their specialty, have university training. The basic course of training is comprised of three years of theoretical study of psychology, pedagogy (education), and sociology. Brief periods in the course of these three years are devoted to work in actual institutions or to practical training courses of some other kind. The students choose slightly different kinds of practicums or training courses depending on their interests and vocational plans. On the whole, all psychologists undergo basically the same course of training, regardless of their vocational plans. These three years qualify them to be Group B or assistant psychologists in schools, hospitals, etc.

Advanced training for the independent psychologist.

This training now involves an additional two years of study in pedagogy or psychology at a university. During these two years, theoretical studies are combined with courses of a practical nature. The practical side of the training involves, for instance, group therapy, psychodrama, behavior therapy, and/or family therapy. The studies are directed toward the major problems in the three main areas of the field of psychology. Psychologists are also trained in the administrative, communication, and organizational aspects of the field of psychology that they are going into. The student also has to carry out a scientific study which is estimated to take approximately one term of full-time work to complete. In reality, most students work one year or more on this scientific study.

A student completing this higher level of education is thoroughly qualified to work as a Group A or independent psychologist. Roughly 50% of the assistant psychologists go on and take this kind of training, a figure which is closely related to the capacity of the univeristy to provide this higher education. University education in Sweden is now under a major process of reorganization which will, in all probability, greatly influence the future training of psychologists.

The training for school psychologists.

All school psychologists at the central and regional levels are independent psychologists (group A psychologists). Both independent and assistant (group B)psychologists are to be found at the local level, depending upon the qualifications required by the local education authority. Municipalities tend to employ assistant psychologists rather than independent psychologists, possibly because they receive a slightly lower rate of pay. Many assistant school psychologists, however, attend higher education courses part time with a view to becoming independent psychologists. If there is only one school psychologist in a municipality, they must be at the group A level.

School psychology is not a special subject for degree studies in Swedish universities. School psychologists view this as a major lack and find they have to obtain knowledge about the school society and its problems and possibilities in other ways. Perhaps this deficit can be corrected in the reorganization that is taking place in university education. In many other countries, school psychologists are also qualified teachers. This is not the case in Sweden although many school psychologists do have some experience in teaching.

In-service training for school psychologists.

School psychologists receive regularly recurring, regional in-service training. Programs differ from one county to another, but in-service training usually consists of between two and four days annually. The subject matter usually consists of information, lectures, and discussions concerning new methods and new routines.

There are also voluntary in-service training courses for school psychologists during school holidays. This training is organized in the form of one-week residential courses. Roughly 100 school psychologists attend a course of this type every year. Courses may be aimed at several different categories of school personnel.

The development of the school psychologist's work during the last years has made many of them feel a strong need for in-service training. Besides the courses mentioned above, many school psychologists attend other courses organized, for example, by universities, different therapeutic associations, and different organizations for adult education.

The most frequent kind of in-service training is on methods of group-dynamics and group counseling; about 50% of the school psychologists have received such training. Special education and pedagogy, administrative techniques, and organizational psychology are other frequent subjects in their in-service training.

The Work of the Municipal (local) School Psychologists

The pupil welfare conference.

Modern pupil welfare is concerned with all pupils. It is customary for all compulsory school and upper secondary schools in Sweden to have pupil welfare teams. In a comprehensive school, this team generally consists of the headmaster, home room teachers, class teachers, remedial teachers, a study and vocational guidance advisor, the school doctor, the school nurse, the school welfare officer (social worker), and the school psychologist. An upper secondary school student welfare team seldom includes a school psychologist because they are rare in these schools. The pupil welfare team is responsible for pupil welfare activities in the individual school, with the primary responsibility being vested in the headmaster. The team usually meets once a week, and the meeting is referred to as "a pupil welfare conference."

Individual cases are often discussed at the pupil welfare conference, and the teacher of the pupil being discussed is present. Often the pupil and his or her parents are also present. The problems discussed may be educational, psychological, or medical. However, the conference can also deal with entire classes, with the teacher or teachers concerned taking part. A discussion of this kind may be about, for example, problems of cooperation in the class. Other discussions get into still broader issues, e.g., how best to develop pupil welfare work, etc.

The pupil welfare conference decides on measures to be taken in the cases discussed, which means that a great deal of the work of the school psychologist is governed by such conferences. For example, a 6th grade teacher calls for a discussion of the disciplinary problems in their class and the conference decides that a special teacher and the school psychologist are to work together with the classroom teacher for a limited period of time. It is important that the pupil welfare team also provides adequate follow-up to find out if the different measures have worked in the desired way.

Special teaching (special education).

Much of the work of the school psychologist has been, and still is, concerned with the placement of students in "special teaching." This instruction is provided within the framework of the ordinary school system in the form of special classes, clinic instruction, and coordinated special teaching. Children with special needs can also receive instruction at home or in a hospital.

Special teaching is for children with handicaps and difficulties of various kinds. The problems involved may be intellectual, emotional, social, or medical in character. Often a combination of several different problems is involved. The aim of special teaching is the same as for all teaching in the modern Swedish school: to offer each individual student a course of study that suits their particular aptitude, that requires and gives them an opportunity to perform according to their ability, and that enables them to experience the satisfaction of success.

Most special teaching today is given in clinics or in collaboration with the regular teacher in the classroom.

Special classes are steadily declining in number. The two most common types of special class are auxiliary classes and remedial reading classes. A decision by the pupil welfare conference is required before a child can be placed in a special class. This decision is often preceded by a psychological examination of the child which generally involves both testing and a contact with the child and their parents.

The amount of time spent by school psychologists in placing students in special classes has also declined considerably during the last years. Instead, their work is currently directed more toward the regular class situation. The psychologist can help the special teacher draw up educational programs for individual pupils or for an entire class. This may involve the psychologist only working with the teacher, or working individually with the pupil in question, or with the entire class. It may also mean working with pupils who have no history of referral to be able to help other students who are having difficulties. At times, it may also mean working with individual parents or groups of parents. Since there are often as many as 10 special teachers working with only one school psychologist, this kind of teamwork does not take place as frequently as one would like it to.

Besides this educational teamwork, the school psychologist can help the local school authority with the organization and distribution of the special teaching resources within the local municipality. This help consists mostly of an analysis of the need for special teaching in the different school units.

School psychologists have also committed themselves to an on-going discussion of the school problems of handicapped pupils. This discussion deals with such problems as: the desirability of special classes (particularly those for slow learners), questions of integration, the class teacher versus the "subject teacher" system for handicapped pupils, hostel accomodation as compared with living at home or in a foster home, the formation of attitudes, psychological problems, etc. Some school psychologists carry out local and/or regional research on the effects of different kinds of special teaching and other special pedagogic problems.

Work in the classroom.

The educational side of the work of the school psychologist has often had to take second place to the therapeutic and social work emphases which are often considered to be the most pressing needs by both psychologists and teachers. There is, however, an increasing need for psychological services in the classroom. This can be carried out in connection with the passing of the pupil from one level to another and in arranging for implementing professional growth days for school personnel.

Many school psychologists, but not all, try to work on these problems. Working in the classroom, together with the teacher and the students, may mean that the psychologist stays in the class for certain lessons, making observations, leading discussions, assuming aspects of the teaching responsibility, making it possible for the teacher to observe the class, and so on. Then the teacher, the pupils, and the school psychologist can communicate with each other on how they have experienced the working-methods and instructional climate, both from the intellectual as well as the emotional aspect. These observations and communications may be used to try different seating arrangements, group environments, etc. to help the pupils work together and learn more about themselves and each other. They may also result in a better understanding between the teacher and pupils, a more open discussion of the total educational situation, the development of alternative teaching methods, and so on. The school psychologist may be helpful in keeping this process going.

Another part of the educational work of the school psychologist which is less controversial today is the value of the psychologist's cooperation in in-service study days. The school psychologist often leads courses or lessons in: child-development psychology, group dynamics, or pupil welfare. During study days which are designed to have all school personnel discuss problems in their own school, the psychologist often helps people focus on the organization and methods of working with groups in order to facilitate the communication between both individuals and groups. As mentioned above, neither all school psychologists nor all teachers find this type of educational work valuable or possible to use. In all likelihood, however, this type of work will become more prevalent with time.

Therapeutic and social work.

Most school psychologists in Sweden today spend more time on therapy than on diagnosis or in the design of educational programs. The therapy practiced is usually short-term rather than the longer approach. This may involve working alone with the student or together with their family. Any long-range contact with a family will often take place in collaboration with the school welfare officer. The therapeutic methods used are based, for example, on psychodynamic theory, learning theory (such as behavior modification), humanistic psychology, or a combination of these.

There is no serious disagreement between the different therapeutic schools used among school psychologists today. The discussion deals more with questions such as: To what extent should school psychologists work with therapy? How much time should this work be allowed to take? Should school psychologists work mainly with individuals or with groups of pupils? Should they work directly with pupils or indirectly as a supervisor or consultant to teachers and parents? The trend is likely to be toward working more with groups and more as supervisors and only in special cases working for a long time with an individual pupil.

In working on an individual basis, which sometimes is necessary, the school psychologist may use supportive therapy with the child alone, or, in some cases, with the child and his parents. The school psychologist may also use behavior theory to set up therapy programs for children with behavior problems. Assertive training and systematic desensitization may be used to help pupils overcome, for example, fear of speaking in the classroom or of talking with classmates.

Children who are considered to be suffering from serious psychological problems are referred by their schools to the nearest hospital or to child and youth mental welfare services. This is done following a conference which usually involves the child, their parents, the school health service, and the school psychologist.

It is important that the connections between the school and the institutions outside the school work effectively in order to provide the best total situation for the child. The school psychologist is often the person who helps in keeping this connection open. In some cases where there are conflicts and antagonisms between children or young people and their parents, the school psychologist may use family therapy. The psychologist tries to help the family members to communicate more freely and thus to be more honest with each other. This work can take a very long time and only a few school psychologists have the opportunity to work with families in this way.

In recent years school psychologists have started to work more and more with groups which can either consist of children alone, children and parents, children and teachers, teachers only, or of different kinds of school personnel. Many of the problems and conflicts in the school (both with pupils and school personnel) are connected with problems of communication and cooperation. In working with groups the school psychologist can help both children and adults to focus in on the relationships between individuals, within a group as well as between individuals and groups. A somewhat different approach consists of working with groups of children in order to help them to assist each other both with difficulties at school and with emotional problems.

The demands made by the adult members of the school community are rapidly changing, and the role of the teacher has been radically transformed. Teachers today are expected to participate in the upbringing of their pupils instead of merely conveying factual knowledge. For instance, it is the task of the teacher to develop the pupil's sense of responsibility, their independence, and their capacity for cooperation.

Many teachers find this a problem. It is hard to know how to discharge such a duty, and those who try often experience a sense of failure. Teachers may need to discuss their problems with somebody who can help them to obtain hints and ideas from their colleagues on, for instance, the subject of different ways of associating with children and their parents outside the classroom. School psychologists have therefore started organizing regular meetings with teachers, usually once a week, for at least one term. Many such groups have been highly successful and would moreover seem to have led to fruitful co-operation between teachers and school psychologists in other ways. In connection with these teacher groups, school psychologists have also started groups for all kinds of school leaders and for parents. The subjects are very often connected with questions about how to relate and communicate to each other and to children and young people.

Preventive emphasis and organizational work.

The school psychologist has to participate in all planning work concerning the school and the school environment designed for the prevention of emotional as well as other types of problems.

For many school psychologists, cooperation with nursery schools and day nurseries form an important part of this work. Practically all children in Sweden attend nursery school or day-nursery the year before they start school. The school psychologists endeavor in various ways to obtain as accurate a picture as possible of these children so as to get them off to a good start the following year. In some areas, for instance, children who are not ready to start school are put in special school readiness classes in order to prevent problems arising at school later on. These children, who are often late developers, are offered the opportunity to work in quieter surroundings during their early school years.

School psychologists are also expected to exert influence on the shaping of the school environment itself, both the physical and the emotional environment. School psychologists as well as other people in the school have been discussing possible ways to do this. One way that seems to be valuable is to help people see conflicts and problems not merely as disturbances to be hid or avoided, but as something to be solved. Solving conflicts in a constructive manner may be a way of developing the social milieu of the school.

Another type of environmental work which has recently been introduced in schools concerns the organization within the individual school. Under this approach, all personnel in the school spend a number of days discussing hypothetical problems of organization and the problems encountered in their own school, the aim being to produce meaningful changes. The school psychologist plays an important part in participating in the analysis and in enabling the group to more effectively cooperate and communicate. To work with the school as a total organization in this way is a difficult and often delicate job. Since the school psychologist is also a part of the organization of the schools they serve, they often prefer to act as just another member of the team. In this case two school psychologists working near each other may want to charge places.

Helping to develop the contacts between parents and teachers in the parent-teacher association is still another type of environmental work. School psychologists often work together with the teachers in arranging parent-teacher meetings in a way that maximizes active participation from all parents, teachers, and pupils.

The types of work that have been described as the work of the municipal school psychologists are only examples. Keeping in mind the working conditions, the great distances between schools, and the number of people with whom they have to work, it is impossible for a single school psychologist to do all types of work well. The expectations from parents, students, and school personnel sometimes prevent the psychologist from doing the work he/she wants to do. Besides, the education of school psychologists has its deficiencies and it is not always possible for them to attend in-service training or other courses. But the school psychologists are really trying to work in the described direction. Today some have advanced further in the development of this aspect of the job than others.

The Projections for the Usage of School Psychologists in the Next Ten Years

The trends of development of school psychology already mentioned will probably continue during the next ten years. Of course this development is closely related to the future working conditions and the future knowledge about, and interest in, the different ways to utilize the psychologist in the school.

One important commission, the Royal Commission on the Internal Work of Schools (the SIA Commission), has recently concluded its work. The SIA Commission has concerned itself with the internal working environment of schools, with particular regard to actions taken on behalf of those pupils having difficulties. The government bill coming out of the SIA Commission has not yet passed the Swedish Parliament. However, some of the suggestions made in February, 1976 by the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs will probably affect the working conditions of the school psychologist. The development and evaluation of different teaching methods and school activities may, for example, increase the need for psychologists to work on teams put together for this purpose.

The Commission on the State, School, and Municipalities (SSK Commission) was constituted in 1972 to consider the division of responsibility between central government and local authorities for the school system. The Commission is called upon to strike the most favorable balance between the need for national regulations to insure the realization of the school's goals, as opposed to the need for broader use of initiatives, measures, and of responsibility at the local level. The result of this Commission will probably be of great importance in determining how many school psychologists will be needed in the future, and also to some extent, to determine what kinds of work they will do.

In addition to the above mentioned commissions there is another project at the National Board of Education working with the goals and content in the school psychologist's work. This commission has not produced any official report yet. It has, however, discussed the importance of having people with other experiences and education than the teaching staff available in the school. Other points of discussion have been centered around the need for the school psychologist:

- To work more closely with the teachers, students, parents, and other personnel in the schools;
- To participate in the further development of their educational and pedagogical work;

- To participate in developing methods at the local level which lead to the evaluation of both the total school environment and the individual instructional methods, including their intellectual, social, and emotional consequences;
- To evaluate their own work regularly;
- To give time and attention toward helping the school be a place of working and living for lots of young people and adults and to try to help to develop the school into a truly democratic place.

All of these movements potentially will affect the role of the school psychologist in Sweden in the coming years.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICE IN BRITAIN

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Historical Development

Early growth.

The development of child guidance in Britain is partly indebted to the development in the United States. For financial support, the child guidance service depended initially on Harkness, who established a Commonwealth Fund in 1918 "for the welfare of mankind." This fund was of inestimable value as it was used initially to train qualified staff to run child guidance centres and later to carry on the work in other related areas.

When Child Guidance Clinics were developed, initially in London and subsequently elsewhere, it was realized how important the role of the schools would be, the child welfare centres, the hospitals, and, where possible, the juvenile courts. Professor Cyril Burt inspired such development by working as the first Psychologist, indeed the first Educational Psychologist, for the London County Council in 1913. At first his task was to identify the maladjusted, the subnormal (those of very low IQ), and the backward children (those not of low IQ but low in academic achievement), and place them in suitable institutions.

Cyril Burt pioneered the School Psychological Service work before the impact of the Healey team pattern development in this country. Thus, the School Psychological Service had its roots in the actions of some authorities such as the London County Council, who saw the importance of having psychological advice available for difficult problems that teachers face. Secondly, later development showed the influence of a team pattern. The Commonwealth Fund was partly used to finance the Child Guidance Council which [illegible] amalgamated into the LAMH. This Council provided monies whereby Psycho[illegible]ere attached to Local Authorities to show them the value of psychological work.

The need to categorize children had already been given impetus by the Education Act of 1970. First, what was then termed the "idiot" (IQ under 25), then the "imbecile" (IQ 25 to 50), and finally the "feeble minded" (IQ 50 to 75) were removed from the normal school setting and were placed in appropriate institutions. Educational provisions for children with IQ ranges of 50 to 75 were made, but those in the other two categories were considered ineducable and given what is commonly termed "training" as opposed to education. Those of IQ 25 to 50 are now considered educable and are classified as "children with severe learning difficulties."

The Children's Act of 1908 required that juvenile courts and magistrates seek some psychological assessment for the children before them. Clinics, therefore, took on this problem of assessing intellectual, tempermental, physical, parental and social, as well as school problems.

Following the American pattern and with the support of the Commonwealth Fund, the Child Guidance Council was founded in 1928. Its aim was to create skilled teams of workers in a child guidance centre similar to that already mentioned as having been established by Dr. Healey in the United States.

In 1935 The Voluntary Child Guidance Service was formally established and began to look for financial support from local authorities. Under the National Health Act of 1946 a new approach to child guidance indicated that two areas would be involved: the hospital service and the local authority under whose jurisdiction came the children and preschool children. The Education Act of 1944 and the National Health Act of 1946 provided for the merging of the two major services; i.e., health and education. Under such a system, both emotional, educational, and other problems could be investigated in one centre.

The Underwood Report of 1955, which published a report on maladjusted children, supported this fusion of education and health. Local Education Authorities were to furnish the premises and employ the Psychologists and, in some cases, Psychiatric Social Workers and Teachers; the contribution of the Regional Hospital Board was to provide the Psychiatrists or Medical Officers of the clinic and, in other cases, the Psychiatric Social Workers. In a number of local authorities the Educational Psychologist was selected and supervised by the County Medical Officer and was closely attached to the school and medical complex. The

Underwood Report led to the Circular 347 of 1959. This was the Circular that recommended that each Authority should set up a Child Guidance Service which was to consist of a Child Guidance Clinic, a School Psychological Service, together with contributions of the School Health Service, all under the direction of the Principal School Medical Officer. Since this all took place within the Education Department, the Chief Education Officer had at least a nominal responsibility for the whole of the Child Guidance Service. Hence, the Child Guidance Service (under Circular 347) was essentially an education-based service. The Circular did point out that in certain areas similar provisions might well be made by a Psychiatric Hospital.

Middle period of development.

After 1955 and until the 1970's, the Child Guidance Service was composed of a Child Guidance Clinic and the School Psychological Service. Child Guidance Clinics have an essentially medical orientation while the School Psychological Service has an educational and psychological approach. The local Education Department and Child Guidance Clinics were connected through the Educational Psychologist who played the dual role of the head of the School Psychological Service and the professional colleague to the Child Guidance Clinic team. This was in part to eliminate the friction which sometimes occurred between the administrative and clinical authority of the psychiatrist and that of the psychologist. When human relations and individual personalities were harmonious, no such difficulties tended to arise, but where individuals were either inflexible or authoritarian, problems followed.

Psychiatrists and Psychiatric Social Workers in fact comprised the Clinic section and the Psychologist completed the trilogy of the interdisciplinary Child Guidance team. As might have been expected, the team's cohesion varied with the personality of the participants. The Psychiatrist was the nominal head of the "team" in these Child Guidance Clinics. The County School Medical Officer administered the psychiatric team (Psychiatrist and Psychiatric Social Worker), while the Chief Education Officer had responsibility for the School Psychological Service.

Each of the three participants performed a specific role growing out of their training and expertise. They all attempted to prevent, control, and dimish the enormous attrition rate due to psychological-educational problems and failures among children and adults. This inevitably lead to the work with parents, students, and other people in institutions that impinge upon the child; i.e., the Probation Service, the Courts, and children in care. In the early 1970's there was some tendency to alter the name "Child Guidance Clinic" to "Child and Family Guidance Centre" or some equivalent name.

Recent developments.

In the past, some psychologists worked directly for Education Departments; others worked within the School Health Service and were responsible to the Education Service by way of the Principle School Medical Officer. Some psychologists worked only in Child Guidance Clinics which were directed by psychiatrists; others worked (as authorized by Circular 347) in joint service settings where they were responsible to a number of people. A more recent Circular on Child Guidance (Circular 3/74) concerned itself with Child Guidance on a larger scale and viewed it as a network of services which included the School Psychologists and Child Psychiatrists (providing mental health), the Child Health Service with its Pediatricians (providing assessment of physical illnesses), and the Social Services (providing social surveyance). This particular Act was created to help children who required more than one service. Circular 3/74 concerned itself with the ascertainment of children attending special schools for a number of handicaps. It eliminated the role of the School Medical Officer in the assessment of children suffering from intellectual or educational problems. The Educational Psychologist became prominent as the assessor in this process. An ongoing procedure for assessment stressing the importance of involving parents in this assessment was developed.

At the present time there are approximately 750 fully trained Educational Psychologists in the United Kingdom, excluding Scotland but including Wales. This number includes those Assistant Psychologists who have been fully trained (in some counties thay are called Assistant Psychologists and in others Psychologists); it does not include Trainee Psychologists who lack either a teacher's qualification and/or the postgraduate Honors Degree in Psychology.

In Britain there are about 120 to 130 psychologists trained every year. Not all of the approximately 130 available training places are taken up; those entering the profession each year number approximately 80. There has been a substantial increase in the number of psychologists being employed over the recent years. It is too early to know, however, whether the recent drastic economies that are occurring will change this trend.

The Psychologists in Scotland are organized differently from those in the United Kingdom. The Scottish Education Department indicated that as of 31 May, 1975 there were 215 full-time Psychologists and 20 parttime Educational Psychologists. The number of Psychologists and their qualifications were as follows:

MA Honors and Diploma in Educational Psychology (49 full-time and 4 parttime),

MA plus MSc (16 full-time and none parttime),

MEd (109 full-time and 10 parttime).

There is some leeway in the way that psychologists see their own role. Some prefer a more clinical orientation while others seek to play a more advisory or administrative role within a local authority. Still others are engaged in research or in the training of other psychologists in various centres throughout the country.

Most Educational Psychologists who are qualified belong to their own association: The Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP). Some also belong to the British Psychological Society (BPS), the national organization of psychologists equavalent to the American Psychological Association (APA) which has a group for Educational Psychologists

In Britain the term School Psychologist is rarely used. Instead, Educational Psychologist is the title. The 750 Educational Psychologists are divided into a hierarchy consisting of Principal or Senior Psychologist, followed by Area or Senior Psychologists (depending on the local authority), the large group of practising Psychologists, and, in some instances, Psychologists in training or Assistant Psychologists. The Principal Psychologist (or if there is not one, the Senior Psychologist) is in administrative charge of the School Psychological Service.

Some of the 80 new psychologists each year replace others who, in the course of time, leave the service to enter other professional settings such as the University, Teachers Training College, or, in some instances, private work.

Background and Training of Psychologists

Most Educational Psychologists must have a period of at least two years of teaching before they can be accepted as properly qualified. Many, of course, have more than two years, usually in a number of different kinds of schools. The basic qualification for the Educational Psychologist in Britain is an Honors Degree in Psychology, generally termed a "Good Honors Degree". Degrees are divided into first, second, and third class. Usually first or second class degrees are found to be acceptable.

Although there is some controversy concerning this, the importance of the teacher qualification and teacher experience lies in the fact that Educational Psychologists must understand the problems of the teacher and the school. They must see the child not merely as a clinician does, in a one-to-one relationship, but must remember that the child is a member of a class of children. In proposing actions, they are fully aware that the recommendations made to the teachers must be capable of execution in a classroom and in a school. These psychologists, by virtue of their teaching background, are therefore more sensitive to the problems of the school and teacher and to other professionals working with children.

Psychologists may be clinically or educationally trained; i.e., clinical psychologists and educational psychologists can both work in the educational setting, providing that the clinical psychologist also has a suitable background in teaching. Ideally, but not always, educational psychologists have some clinical training and thus strengthen their hand in dealing with the individual child. The educational psychologist's work is predominantly school centered. Its effectiveness, therefore, depends on the support and advice they can provide to teachers in a classroom. Their major tasks are:

1. Advisory;
2. Providing back-up services for children with special needs;

3. Organizing courses for teachers, both in-service programmes and longer courses organized through universities and teacher training colleges;
4. Acting as diagnostician and providing remedies for children who have special difficulties in the normal classroom;
5. Referring children to other agencies and institutions where appropriate help might be available; this may be the Child Guidance Clinic with a staff of psychiatrists and social workers, as already mentioned.
6. Sometimes psychologists may wish to take all of these functions under their wing and visit the home and school, diagnose the problem of the child and their parents, and do therapy with them. This is not a common practice, but when time is available, it has some obvious advantages.

Other Major Roles of Educational Psychologists in Britain

The roles of Educational Psychologists in Britain about to be described are, in many cases, multi-functional, but in some instances there is an increasing tendency towards specialization in this country. Many of the roles played by Educational Psychologists are determined by those who express a need for specific services. Lowenstein (1970), in a survey carried out among teachers to determine what is expected of psychologists, found the major percentages in order of expressed need were as follows:

1. The need for quicker service;
2. The need for more work to be carried out by psychologists with parents of the children being seen;
3. The need for more frequent visits by the psychologist;
4. The need for more helpful recommendations;
5. The need for more actual treatment as contrasted with diagnosis carried out by the psychologist;
6. More lecturing and preventive work.

Head Teachers' specific comments on the role of the psychologist may be summarized as follows:

1. The staff of psychologists should have a strong liking to work

with children and an ability to gain rapport with them.

2. It was felt that most schools and teachers could handle problems in the classroom provided expert guidance was available for them; teachers were especially interested in advice both on the use of aids, books, and materials, and on reassurance that they were doing the right thing.
3. There should be an elimination of the long wait for those whose children need special help and should be attending schools for the maladjusted and the subnormal.
4. It was felt that many teachers could profit from a one-year part-time course in work with remedial groups; it was also felt that more places should be available in universities and colleges of education for one-year, full-time courses in this special area.
5. Many teachers felt that younger children should be assessed so that help can be given at 5 years of age, or even sooner.
6. It was recommended that psychologists give more actual advice on what should be done rather than merely providing a diagnosis and conclusions; this should be useful to a teacher in a classroom in helping a particular child.
7. It was felt that more follow-up work might be done on children already seen, to find out what changes had occurred.
8. It was generally felt that there are not sufficient numbers of psychologists to work regularly with a school and to have a continuous link with that school; it was particularly felt that a closer and more intimate relationship between the Heads of Schools and the School Psychologists was essential, but this was accepted as impossible at the present time because of the shortage of psychologists.
9. It was felt that either more specific help be given, or that a specialized teacher should be associated with the infant and junior schools to help young children with psychological and learning problems.
10. It was felt that more work should be done with the parents of children who are having difficulties in school.

11. It was felt that one department working the whole matter through would be better than having too many departments being involved in work with children; this would reduce the danger of poor communication between departments.
12. It was felt that School Psychologists should be present at Head Teachers' conferences.

Psychologists as Members of a Team

Psychologists have worked both as members of teams and on their own. There has been an increasing emphasis on psychologists working with other members; i.e., Psychiatrists, Social Workers, Advisors (Inspectors), and especially with Inspectors of Special Education. Tyerman (1975), in the opening session of the 1975 AEP annual conference, referred to Circular 3/74, stating:

"The School Psychological Service now stands on its own feet. But I suggest that its worth will be judged not by what it does on its own, but how it works with others."

Tyerman feels the psychologist should spend less time in one-to-one, face-to-face situations with children and parents and more time working through others, especially teachers and LEA advisors.

The Psychologist as Advisor

In addition to the psychologist's role either as a member of a team or in an advisory capacity to individuals, the psychologist has increasingly worked as an advisor directly to:- the schools, the medical profession, and the social services in Britain.

Many Educational Psychologists have a dual designation: that of Educational Psychologist and of Advisor. Love (1973) suggests that this is an important role played by the psychologist and disagrees with the views expressed by The Summerfield Report (HMSO 1968), which states:

> Educational inspection, organization, and advice: A number of Educational Psychologists have duties as educational organisers or advisors, particularly for special educational treatment. Although some Educational Psychologists are exceptionally well qualified for work of this kind, we do not think that it requires a specialized qualification in psychology; teachers with qualifications and ex-

perience in special educational treatment are well able to undertake work of this kind. Similarly, inspectorial duties are not among those we consider appropriate to Educational Psychologists; the nature of the relationship between teachers and inspectors is different and not necessarily compatible with that between teachers and psychologists.

Love rightly feels that the identification and description of a child's emotional and educational needs through testing is but the beginning of the exercise. The Educational Psychologist must also take the initiative in planning and implementing appropriate special educational provisions, and in so doing they automatically become advisors in special education. Role differentiation between the psychologist and that of the Advisor can be eliminated by removing the emotive term "inspector." This is a term almost totally eliminated now from local authority advisory services. At various times names such as Advisor, Consultant, Visitor, Observer, Field Officer, etc. have been suggested. The general pattern in Britain today, however, is to term individuals likely to go into schools to obtain information and give advice as "Advisors". The role of the Advisor in the local authority is to provide information and advice to the Chief Education Officer as well as teachers and all intermediary positions of the educational hierarchy. This advice may be based on: psychological testing, on knowledge of curriculum most appropriate for children, and/or on teaching methods likely to be most effective with children of a particular handicap or ability.

The Psychologist as Psychometrician

Assessment approaches have long been the main instruments of psychologists working with school children. There have been various attitudes to this approach. This has especially been the case for the use of personality testing and projective techniques. Mischel (1968) conceives psychological tests as being relatively irrelevant and useless; even the educational value of routine intelligence testing is seen as dubious by this author. This is disputed by others in the field, especially Tizard (1973). The view of Williams (1972) is that certain personality tests, while they do not prove to be reliable, are nevertheless important in the total assessment of personality, which would include other measures.

Despite these controversies, the use of IQ and other kinds of testing is still providing much information which is especially useful when it leads to a detailed description on what may be done to treat the child's problem.

The Psychologist as Therapist

There has been an increasing tendency for psychologists to assume the role of a therapist, either on an individual basis or in school-based therapy. One of the earliest approaches to this was group therapy in the school. Lowenstein (1968) reports on work done with a group of about 12 children who were seen weekly in a particularly difficult, modern secondary school. The children had been especially selected by the Head; group discussions were quite revealing. Summarized, they covered the following major areas:

1. The injustices of adults at home and at school;
2. The general lack of understanding of adults for the young;
3. Problems between members of peer groups.

The objective of these meetings was:

1. To alleviate and prevent anxiety, hostility, etc.;
2. To satisfy the craving of the individual for acceptance by an understanding adult and a sympathetic group;
3. To gain the strength to sort out their own problems and to modify behaviour through the group and adult support.

It has been found that secondary schools and the children there, especially those of lesser academic ability, are especially receptive to this preventive approach. The children concerned were those with an obvious problem related to the school. In many cases difficulties in school were but a reflection of the basic problems in the home with the family. In some instances the school was quite unaware that anything was wrong until a parent appeared in the Headmaster's office, often bitterly attacking the child or the school itself. The parents who blamed the school or displaced their anger on the child's peers or the neighbourhood, were specifically invited (at a later time) to participate in adult group therapy sessions which were organized.

It was especially important to organize these groups within the school and thereby gain the support of Secondary School Heads who welcomed such meetings in their own environments. The groups were also designed to do the following:

1. To alleviate the long waiting lists for Child Guidance Clinics;
2. To provide preventive work with children who were not seriously enough disturbed to be referred to Child Guidance Clinics or whose parents refused such referrals;
3. To improve two-way communication of what was happening so that schools would be more inclined to carry out decisions coming from this pooling of information.

Marshall (1971) attempted to evaluate the progress of pupils who received their education for a period of time in a day school for maladjusted children. A sample of children interviewed some years later felt that the school had "helped them in some way, or they had enjoyed the particular educational experience more than any other."

Acklaw and Labon (1971) also use school based therapy. They point out the importance for psychologists to be in the confidence of teachers who are frequently either unaware or unwilling to admit that they have management difficulties with certain children. Once this has been achieved, children are selected by Head teachers for adjustment groups. It is of vital importance to put together the right group of children and to be in contact with parents and obtain their support in what is being done. Long term assessment of such a project is difficult to measure, but the improvement reported was that some children appeared to benefit from such grouping within the framework of the ordinary school. It is also of some interest that the teachers provided most of the service themselves, which is what many teachers, in fact, desire.

Earlier, Moore (1971) drew attention to the large number of children in normal schools whose behavior, although disruptive, was not severe enough to warrant special placement or intensive psychotherapy. She has suggested that psychologists play both a more prominent role in guiding the counsellors who might help such children in the normal school and indeed involve themselves more intimately in the treatment of the children. She has suggested that selected Primary and Nursery School teachers should be offered one- or two-term courses in "School Based Therapy" and should be trained to work with individual children or possibly with small groups.

> By school based therapy I have in mind a fairly superficial form of treatment which would be more or less similar in terms of therapist behaviour and materials to modern primary teaching practice with children of a relevant age group than in much clinic based therapy, whether in the psychoanylitic or behaviourist tradition (Moore, 1971).

She emphasized, however, that such school based therapy should be under the control of the Educational Psychologist. She added that this would offer better opportunity for large scale research than does clinic based therapy. This way, more expensive treatment skills for cases which are most in need should be conserved and carried out at Child Guidance Clinics, or elsewhere. Moore also felt that the teacher and psychologist could therefore develop close collaboration. The work of the psychologist would be more realistic and meaningful to the school. Since Moore's proposals, there have been a number of other studies indicating the virtue of this approach (Lansdown, 1971).

In recent years, an approach which, with few exceptions, has gained favour both among teachers and psychologists, is to develop behaviour modification techniques both in and out of the classroom. The movement received its impetus in Britain from work done in the early 1970's by Presland (1970) and also by an earlier work of Burt (1937, 1950) on the subnormal child and the young delinquent (see also Black, 1970).

Fitton (1973) did some early pioneering work in seeking to rate criteria for behaviour modification. The importance of continuously assessing behaviour in order to measure progress was reiterated. The work of Taylor (1974) emphasizes the importance of changing not only the child's behaviour, but simultaneously changing the parent's, the school's, and very often the teacher's in order to deal more adequately with "Johnny's behaviour."

Presland (1975), following up his earlier work in 1972, continues to see behaviour modification as one of the primary approaches to the large number of children reported to the School Psychological Service. He saw it as imperative to present the principles of behaviour modification in learning theory in a meaningful way, convincing teachers that the approach was worth trying. He also found that it was important to make it clear to teachers that such approaches are both moral and practicable. He emphasized the support that the psychologist must give to schools and teachers, particularly those engaged in applying the theories of behaviour modification in the classroom.

As a result of the continuing problem of disruptive and in some cases violent behaviour, the author was asked by the second largest teacher's union, the National Association of School Masters, to conduct a preliminary national survey involving all schools in England and Wales (Lowenstein, 1972). The increased reports of violent behaviour in British schools generally reported in the press and the mass media, had produced in teachers a certain militancy which needed to be further investigated through an objective approach. This was followed by a more comprehensive investigation in which the disruptive as well as violent behaviour was studied in British schools. Of particular interest was the behaviour of girls, which in the earlier study had not been done (Lowenstein, 1975). The result revealed an extensive amount of violence and disruptive behaviour in British schools, sufficient to warrant the eventual setting up of centres in various areas of the country for children who were so disturbing as not to be containable in a normal classroom. The author stressed the importance of behaviour modification as a worthwhile technique to be used by teachers in normal schools as well as in these centres created for such children. There was, however, some importance also given to other therapeutic approaches which were likely to be more successful with some children.

A more psychoanalytic approach to the treatment of children was used successfully by Caspari (1975) who investigated children with learning difficulties and found that, although there may be a lack of overt signs of disturbance, projective tests and additional evidence suggested they may have problems responsible for the lack of learning.

The Psychologist as Researcher

There has been some hesitation on the part of some of the local authorities to support Psychologists in their effort to commit some of their time to applied research as part of their important work. Other authorities, however, have welcomed such approaches and there has been an increase in this kind of work by Psychologists which has produced added professional satisfaction.

Psychologists in Britain for some time avoided research because of the nature of the work in which they were committed, and the fact that very little time was available for such activities. It has, however, become increasingly apparent that those in the "ivory towers" of the universities, despite the fact that they are capable of carrying out much more carefully controlled studies, frequently lack the facilities and the practical orientation of their colleagues in the field. It is also felt by many Psychologists that in addition to enriching their day-to-day activities, research could act as a contributing factor to our present day knowledge. This was true despite the fact that such research would frequently not be as carefully performed and controlled as that which is capable of being carried out in universitites and other institutions of research.

Confronted with the mounting pressure of increased referrals and demands on their time, some Psychologists courageously decided that some form of research was necessary in order to help with their day-to-day functioning. Initially, educational screening was thought to be a good approach to the earlier identification of children who were likely to have more serious problems in the future. Crowther (1971) sought to investigate the possibility of screening children at age 8, after they had had three years of school. The aims in mind were to identify specific children of at least average intelligence who were retarded by at least one year who were also two or more years behind in reading.

The study also attempted to identify children who might be Educationally Sub Normal (ESN with IQ's from approximately 50 to 75). In addition the study was also interested in children who were superior in intellectual ability (IQ 140-plus on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, who also had a high reading attainment). Another later thrust attempted to identify children above average in ability (IQ 110-plus) who were at least one year behind their actual age in Reading.

In at least one county, despite great difficulties, a survey was conducted to establish the amount and degree of retardation in Reading (Lowenstein, 1973). Conclusions were based on a 38% return and constituted a sample of 144 schools. Results showed that there were many children retarded in Reading and the peak of retardation was approximately between 9 and 11 years of age. This led to the implementation of many remedial facilities being established and eventually to a reduction in reading deficiency.

Although the pressure has been on Psychologists to investigate children who are in need of special educational provision as a result of backwardness or retardation, there have been a number of psychologists interested in the other end of the scale who have investigated children such as the "gifted child" (Lowenstein, 1972 b). This reasearch was concerned with updating the work of the Terman study (1925). It also sought to help teachers to identify children who were likely to be gifted by tests that could be carried out in the classroom and to refer such children to a Psychologist for a more personal assessment. Remedial procedures were proposed such as:

1. Enrichment of the present curriculum.
2. Placing children one or more years in advance of their peers.
3. Placing them in special classes or schools for full or part time.

The whole business of segregation versus nonsegregation of the gifted was discussed, with arguments being given on both sides. On the whole, the conclusion reached was that segregation was a natural process, be it formal or informal. Too little is being done at the present time to help the intellectually able to progress according to their needs.

Povey (1975) studied musically gifted children and found there was a mixed reaction to segregation versus nonsegregation of this gifted group. The conclusion is that musicians and ballet dancers derive much from attending nonsegregated schools where their particular area of giftedness is given ample latitude and development. Other research involving the identification of learning difficulties through the use of designs was carried out by Rennie (1975).

Chazan (1972) points to the role of Educational Psychologists in the promotion of community mental health. He stressed the role of the Psychologist as it extended to the promotion of mental health in the community. He also emphasized the importance of early screening procedures being practised by Psychologists. This is essential in helping to shape school policies and in identifying preschool children likely to be in need of further help. Other research should be carried out in the community to involve as many members of society as possible who are likely to impinge on the child's future development.

The Training of Other Psychologists

It is undoubtedly important that Psychologists in practice should play an increasing role in the training of other, future psychologists. As has already been pointed out, the primary qualification for becoming an Educational Psychologist in Britain, as in Sctoland, is to obtain an Honors Degree in Psychology. In addition to this, teacher's training and recognition as a qualified teacher is necessary. This is followed by a postgraduate professional period of training of about two years in England, Wales, and Scotland. The qualifications obtained at that time are either an MSc or a Dip Ed Psych degree. In some instances the Dip Ed Psych incorporates teachers training.

Scotland's provisions for Educational Psychologists appear to be more adequate than its neighbours in England and Wales. The Summerfield (HMSO, 1968) proposal of one Psychologist per 10,000 school children by 1990 had already been surpassed in Scotland in the late 1960's, where its ratio was one Psychologist per 8,000 school children (Nisbet & MacKay, 1971).

The training of Educational Psychologists in England and Wales is reviewed by Keir (1972) who sent out a questionnaire to six clinics involved in training psychologists. These included the London Child Guidance Training Clinic, The Tavistock Clinic, and four organized by University Departments (i.e., Manchester, Birmingham, Swansea, and University College in London). (The Universities of Sussex and Nottingham, who were commencing courses at that time, were not involved.) A summary of the training given included:

1. Aspects of Child Development; i.e., Cognitive Processes, Language, Socialization, and Personality.
2. Techniques of Assessment; i.e., Methods of Serving Tests, Interviewing, and Cognitive Assessment generally. (The clinics spend between 40 and 60 hours on the techniques of assessment.)

3. Deviant Development; i.e., studies of handicapped children, including the physically handicapped, the severely mentally handicapped, and the moderately intellectually handicapped, i.e., the child with learning difficulties. (This occupied a place in all of the courses.) Included were courses in Child Psychiatry, Clinical Discussion, Case Conferences, etc.
4. Therapeutic Intervention; i.e., backwardness and its treatment in Reading, Numbers, and Spelling (this involves between 20 and 45 hours).
5. Educational Psychology; i.e., the statistical treatment of research design and the theoretical background of educational psychology was given due emphasis on all courses.

In all, the total hours spent on theory was between 200 and 400 hours.

Seth (1972) correctly points out that for many years the image of the Psychologist, especially one working in the educational setting, has been unclear. The "image or identity of those School Psychologists has often been defined in terms of what he does, rather than what he is." Seth emphasizes the importance of psychologists themselves deciding on their own destiny and the type of training they need in order to do their job most effectively.

Moore (1975), who has been responsible for the training of psychologists at the Child Guidance Training Centre, suggests that training must incorporate the following:

1. Fitting the child into a system and helping the child fit into their own system;
2. Assessing the child, the environment, and the total changing situation;
3. Viewing the child objectively, if possible, through normative data and through the observers around them; i.e., peers, parents, teachers, etc.
4. Seeing a discrepancy objectively between these views; i.e., the child's role, their own needs and how these may effect constructive modification of their behaviour;
5. Modifying the child or the environment or interaction between the two.

The Psychologist as Administrator

The role of administrator has been debated by many psychologists in the past. With the growth of larger Authorities and larger School Psychological Services, it has become more and more imperative for psychologists to assume administrative roles. This involved what many psychologists find extremely distasteful: the avoidance of doing day-to-day clinical work with children, parents, or indeed, with teachers.

Wright (1973) quotes the Summerfield Report (HMSO, 1968):

"We recommend that administrative duties that do not call for their specialized psychological training should be reduced to a minimum." Wright disagrees with this and feels that administration in some form is part of every psychologist's job, and furthermore, because of their psychological knowledge, they have a head start on many other professional workers in appreciating the principles of human relations, etc. He agrees, however, with the Summerfield Report that such administrative duties should be kept to a minimum, particularly those that can be carried out by lower administrative staff. Certainly the psychologist seems well endowed through training and background to identify the needs and planning of resources within a county. Much of the research which they have hopefully carried out supports many of the policies they are attempting to introduce and which they want to forward to Chief Education Officers and others. It is probably necessary to introduce courses which would develop better management and leadership techniques for psychologists working with colleagues in other disciplines.

Projected Developments

There are several areas which are in the process of developing or where more emphasis is needed:

1. There has been an increasing tendency for psychologists to specialize in areas such as the study of minimal brain damage; children with severe or moderate learning difficulties; children who are partially sighted or hearing impaired; children with cerebral palsy; children who are maladjusted, etc. There has even been some specialization according to age; i.e., preschool children, middle school children, and adolescents, as well as

psychologists dealing strictly with vocational guidance programmes. This is likely to increase, so that referrals will frequently be made between psychologists as they learn to rely on the different expertise to be found among those of their own discipline.

2. There should be an increasing opportunity for applied research, especially to estimate the efficacy of the service that is being provided by psychologists. This is of great importance to psychologists in that it helps them validate their tools, both for the diagnosis and treatment of problems.

The Psychology of the Future

There are 750 Educational Psychologists at the present time. The projected development and need indicates that this number is expected to rise to about 1,000 by 1980 (Tyerman, 1975). The 105 school authorities (including the Isles of Scilly) will be responsible for at least 9 million children in school and another 3 to 4 million preschool children. One in six of these children will be expected to require help of some kind which is "beyond that which the class teacher can be expected to provide" (Lowenstein, 1969). There will thus be an increasing need for psychologists to pass on their skills to teachers so that they may act as applied psychologists in the classroom setting, with only the more severe cases being referred to the psychologist or Child Guidance Clinic.

The psychological service of the future must consider a number of vital aspects both of the current trends in society and the world, as well as the needs of individuals to whom the service is dedicated. It must, therefore, consider the following:

1. To spend more time and effort in doing preventive work.
2. To become increasingly dedicated to the purifying of both diagnosis and therapy.
3. To bridge and coordinate the gap between advising and doing; i.e., coordinating between the great variety of experts and agencies. "Knowing without doing and doing without knowing" must be avoided.
4. To be aware of, and to show a willingness to influence, exist-

ing powers all over the world in order to generally improve the educational and emotional life of people.

5. The changing scope of the clinic is likely to require a change of the name of the service. There will therefore be, in the future, a variety of names applied to child guidance services.

The future calls for vision and boldness and a willingness to look beyond local authority or national boundaries. There must be a renewed vigour to tackle the age-old problems of social need and to make this need respectable. It is also vital to treat this need in a businesslike as well as a compassionate manner and naturally, whenever possible, to rehabilitate individuals as responsible and self-sustaining members of the community, the country, and the world. There is still no substitute for such common sense notions as: "Help must be given quickly, expertly, directly, humanely, and effectively." Anything that impedes or limits speed, expertise, directness, and effectiveness should be scrutinized and obliterated from this sphere of social service.

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EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN LATIN AMERICA

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Education and Development

The problems of education in Latin America have been varied and heterogeneous. This is a continent in permanent change, in which philosophical, political, and social ideas vary with the governments in power, with the changes in the international scene, with technicological advances, and with the dominant ideologies. It is well known that education suffers the permanent impact of technology as well as ideology.

Latin America has high proportions of illiteracy, which vary from one country to another. According to available statistics, Cuba is the country with the lowest percentage of illiteracy (around 4%) and Argentina is second (with 10% illiteracy). In the majority of cases, the percentage varies from 30 to 40% and is diminishing, thanks to government as well as private efforts. There are countries with 80% illiteracy, but they have become aware of the problem and of its impact on socioeconomic development. On the average it appears that one Latin American of every three cannot read or write.

The other important factor in this picture is rapid demographic growth. We have one of the highest rates of population growth in the world. Thus, the government campaigns directed at reducing illiteracy and improving the conditions of the people are neutralized due to the uncontrolled growth of the population. The absolute number of teachers, schools, and resources dedicated to education at all levels increases; but simultaneously the population increases, and therefore the situation does not vary much. In some cases, in fact, the opposite tendency is noted. Each year more children are left without schools and more young people without university. Even though the educational capacity has increased, it has not taken place as rapidly as the population aspiring to enter these institutions has increased.

In general the situation is complex and difficult to understand for those who do not live in this context. The man on the street is sure that massive programs of birth control are "imperialistic" and directed by the United States. But at the same time, all governments are anti-natalistic (perhaps with the exception of Argentina and Brazil). The governments consider that a developmental plan cannot be carried out unless the problems of demographic growth are managed appropriately. Once the industrialization of the country has taken place, however, control is exercised automatically and voluntarily, as has been demonstrated before. The woman that works cannot have many children; besides, in an industrialized society, the level of aspiration of the parents increases with regard to their children and it is recognized that these goals cannot be attained if people have too many children. So they prefer to have few children in good conditions rather than many in a bad situation.

Demographic growth is probably the most important problem in Latin American education, as many reports have suggested. However, political accusations against programs of birth control force governments not to organize open campaigns, and instead limit their efforts to "indirectly aiding" the organizations in charge of doing this.

Education is a source of concern in all these countries, and in their plans for development it always has a high priority. Great importance is given to new approaches and orientations in education as well as to the applications of technology. National and international meetings and congresses to discuss innovations in education, the relation between education and social change, etc. are held. These are topics of the moment which are analyzed frequently and to which great quantities of physical and human resources are dedicated.

What is the role of psychology in all this work? The great majority of countries have a career of psychology (see Ardila, 1968, 1976a) and courses of study that try to adjust the psychologist to the requirements of the country. The psychologist is seen as the agent of social change (see Bricht, 1973). In research on the necessities of psychologists and their specific areas of work, the area of education is emphasized. These psychologists consider that education is the field of work in which they can most effectively contribute to the task of national development. This great emphasis on educational psychology as an instrument of social change means that some other areas are not paid enough attention to, such as industrial psychology, psychology as applied to criminology, and especially social psychology, which also have much to contribute to this task (see Marin, 1975a, b).

The things that educational psychologists can do in their struggle against underdevelopment are centered in a better utilization of human resources (Campos, 1968), in many aspects of educational technology, in the so-called "achievement motivation", in the psychology of poverty, etc. It is an ample and varied panorama in which much work is being done at this moment. Implicitly and explicitly, it is felt that the problems of development are problems of an educational nature and that resolving the problems in this area will resolve the rest.

There are several areas in educational psychology in which many have worked actively in Latin America, which will be presented shortly. Although not all of these areas are directed specifically at problems of socio-economic development, the majority of the findings are relevant for the problems of Latin America in the last quarter of the 20th Century.

Psychometrics

As we have indicated before, psychology in Latin America was, at the beginning, closely linked to medicine and education (see, for example, the case of Colómbia in Ardila, 1973). Only later did it develop into an autonomous discipline.

In that context, the problems of measurement of traits and psychological factors acquire great relevance. One of the first areas to develop was psychometrics, which is generally considered to work with two types of instruments: objective tests and projective tests. These are applied to educational problems as well as to clinical problems.

In Brazil there is a long tradition of psychometric studies of high quality. The pioneer in this area was Lourenço Filho. He, as well as Emilio Mira y Lopez, dedicated himself to problems of construction, standardization, and the use of psychological tests, many of them with direct applications to education. The ABC of Filho is a highly valued and much utilized test in many Latin American countries. This psychometric activity was centered in the _Instituto do Selação e Orientação_

Profissional (ISOP), founded in Rio de Janeiro in 1947, within the Fundação Getúlio Vargas. The president of ISOP was João Carlos Vital and the technical director was Emilio Mira y Lopez.

In its beginnings, Argentinian psychology also worked with measurement problems, although there the first studies were done in experimental psychology laboratories and were centered on problems of sensation and perception (Ardila, 1976b). In psychometrics, the work of Placido A. Horas, Oscar Oñativia, and especially Nuria Cortada de Kohan (1973, 1974) should be noted. Important psychometric studies and many investigations were done.

However, in the last decade, with the influence of psychoanalysis and the emphasis on ideological issues, objective tests have rapidly lost ground. It is felt that tests are an instrument that psychologists can use in their predominantly clinical tasks (see Bohoslavsky, 1971); to trust tests too much, however, can be an obstacle in the work and can lead to false roads.

In Mexico, studies on the construction and standardization of tests have been done. Many psychometric investigations have been inspired by Diaz-Guerrero. There has been considerable work with the Wechsler and the Holtzman (HIT). Recently an ample preschool program with the mass media was carried out. It centered on Plaza Sésamo, the Mexican version of Sesame Street. In Diaz-Guerrero, Bianchi, and Ahumada (1975) one can find a description of the studies on Plaza Sésamo, including the problems of psychological measurement.

No other country has reached the level of development in the psychometric area that Brazil, Argentina, or Mexico have. All countries use psychological tests; in some cases these have been adequately standardized for the country in question. However, sometimes the North American, the Puerto Rican, or the Mexican versions are used.

Original tests by Latin American authors have been produced, among which we should mention that of Angelini, the PMK of Mira y Lopez, the ABC of Filho (to which we referred previously), the Investigative Personality Questionnaire by Escotet, the Barranquilla Rapid Test (BARSIT), and others.

Which are the most frequently used tests in each Latin American country? This information would give us an idea of the type of psychometric work done in each locale. However, we do not have that information except for a few countries. During the XIV Interamerican Congress of Psychology (São Paulo, 1973) and again during the XV Congress (Bogotá, 1974), symposiums about "Psychological tests in the Americas" took place. Several people presented the state of psychometrics in their respective countries. In some cases the tests that were used were specified; in others only general ideas about the tests and their use were given. Table 1 shows the tests most frequently used in some countries; for the case of Argentina, see Kohan (1973); for Colombia, Gonzalez (1977); for Peru, Sialer (1973); for Uruguay, Zanella (1973); and for Mexico, Morales (1975).

The data from Table 1 should be analyzed with the following specifications. Only in the case of Colombia was a systematic survey done among all the psychologists of the country to find out which tests they used and in what order. For the other countries the information was collected randomly by interviewing representative persons or contacting important institutions. At the same time, the data on the order are not always exact; some authors refer to the tests used without giving an order. In the case of Colombia, the order was specifically studied.

In spite of these limitations, it appears that all the countries use approximately the same tests. In Brazil, however, there is a tendency to produce original tests by Brazilian authors instead of adapting the classics; this is in keeping with the high development of psychometrics in that country (Nick, 1974).

Table 1

Psychological Tests Most Widely Used In Some Latin American Countries

ARGENTINA	COLOMBIA	MEXICO	PERU	URUGUAY
Rorschach	Wechsler	Wechsler	Stanford-Binet	Gesell
TAT	Rorschach	Holtzman	Wechsler	Terman-Merrill
Machover	Kuder	Terman-Merrill	Goodenough	Wechsler
Terman-Merrill	TAT	Goodenough	DAT	Rorschach
Wechsler	CAT,HMP, Raven	Rorschach	Rorschach	TAT, CAT

Counseling and Guidance

Counseling has been considered a "new priority in Latin America". It has been given great importance in the last few decades as the way to maximize the utilization of human resources.

In the majority of the countries there are professional counselors and their usefulness is recognized. Probably this has been one of the first areas to receive public recognition and government aid, and thus to rapidly prosper. In counseling, well refined psychological principles are introduced, going from the classic tests of interests and aptitudes to the modern techniques of behavioral counseling. In fact, counseling is a priority in Latin America and it is felt that the counselor can contribute in a decisive way to achieving better utilization of human resources, in primary as well as high school and university education. Recently, diversified education is being emphasized which attempts to train personnel in the work at the middle level professions which are urgently needed in Latin America.

Counseling in practically all countries is an area of interaction between psychology and education. In many cases it is a specialization at the graduate level, to which both psychologists and educators have access, and so, at times, do other types of professionals. There is almost never a career at the undergraduate level in guidance and counseling.

There are two basic orientations in Latin American counseling: one centered on Bohoslávsky (1971) and his insistence on a "clinical" strategy; and the other, more modern and global, based on psychometric parameters as well as behavioral ones. In the first approach, counseling is simply the application of clinical principles, derived primarily from psychoanalysis, to a vocational orientation. For the second approach, the problem is much wider, and psychotherapeutic principles derived from learning theory are used (see Marin, 1974 for a study of the therapeutic process as an outgrowth of learning principles); counseling is treated within an integrative approach. Mansilla (1971, 1973) has presented aspects related to interviewing in counseling and describes the organization of a counseling service adapted to the necessities of South American countries. This second, integrative approach is probably the one most utilized by Latin American counselors.

We can consider that the work of the counselor in Latin America is centered on the following tasks: (1) academic orientation; (2) vocational-occupational orientation; (3) professional orientation; and (4) personal orientation or "psychological" counseling. Each of these areas of expertise has been defined with much care, specifying where the work of the educator ends and where the work of the counselor with undergraduate training in psychology begins. Later on we will refer to these same issues in the field of professional educational psychology, which have also been debated frequently.

The importance that national and international organizations concede to orientation can be seen in the publication of a work entitled Educational and Professional Orientation in Chile, Guatamala, Panama, and Venezuela (see Organización de los Estados Americanos, 1967). It can also be seen by the realization of a Latin American congress on counseling and the publication of its Proceedings by the Asociacion Internacional de Orientación Profesional, 1970.

Special Education

Besides the areas of psychometrics and counseling, many educational psychologists use psychological methods and techniques in special education. There are institutions for developmentally retarded children and also for exceptionally bright children, although this last group is seen as a much smaller problem and then is seldom identified.

In many Latin American countries, the fact of having a mentally retarded child is a sign of shame and is hidden in every possible way. This means that these children do not receive adequate psychological and educational treatment that would capacitate them to be useful in society, within the limits of their potential. People prefer to deny the problem, instead of facing it in a realistic way. This attitude is changing and bringing about a multiplication of centers and schools for special education.

Many psychological principles are utilized in this area. Probably the one which is strongest and has generated the most interest is that of behavior modification.

The principle leader in this area has been the Mexican Emilio Ribes, from the National Autonomous University of Mexico. Originally he and his group of collaborators organized a program of psychology centered on operant conditioning and its application in the University of Veracruz (Xalapa, Mexico). From there they moved to the National University where they continue working in the area.

Since its beginnings in Xalapa, the group of experimental analysis has applied these principles to special education. Ribes' book Techniques of Behavior Modification, its Application to Developmental Retardation, was published in 1972 and has been widely used ever since.

Other studies in the area of special education utilizing the operant methodology can be found in Anzures, Naranjo, and Adame (1974), López (1974), Ribes et al (1970), and Ribes (1974) among others. A book put out by the Universidad Veracruzana (1974) presents studies by numerous authors, especially Mexicans, entitled Contributions to Behavior Analysis (1974). Also, in the book edited by Ardila (1974) the papers of psychologists from different Latin American countries can be found, many of whom treat the problems of developmental retardation.

However, special education is not limited to operant conditioning but instead utilizes many methods and approaches. Surely the most systematic work published on the area is that of Luis Bravo (1973) from Chile, entitled Learning Difficulties and School Behavior. Bravo analizes the area in detail, gives historic vision of it, presents his own research on learning disabilities and minimal cerebral dysfunction, and places it in the context of contemporary research. The program of special education at the Catholic Univeristy of Chile is the basis of these studies. His book has served as a guide for special education in many countries, especially in the southern cone of America.

Professional Roles

Latin American educational pscyhologists work in psychometrics, guidance and counseling, special education, and other areas. They use varied methods and techniques that include obtaining behavior records from independent observers as well as tests standardized for the country in question (see Horas & Horas, 1973).

Their professional role at times conflicts with that of other professionals. In the beginning medical doctors dedicated themselves to educational psychology, especially guidance and counseling. Then the educators did it. In many countries these problems still persist. Educational psychology is a specialization in psychology as well as in education, and persons who work in the area come from one discipline at times and at times from the other. It is said that those coming from education possess better practical training, and those coming from psychology better scientific training.

In the case of counseling, the situation was defined by stating that it is a graduate discipline to which both psychologists and educators (and other professionals) could have access; to have the title of psychologist does not guarantee that you can be a counselor. Latin American psychology has had a professional character from the beginning and training is specific from the first years (see Ardila, 1975 for a description of the Latin American training model in psychology). There is an emphasis on psychology as a whole and not on specialized areas. These areas are studied in graduate school. Counseling is one of these areas of specialization.

The only difficulty appears when programs in guidance and counseling at the undergraduate level are available. Then persons with four years of university training, with a specialty in counseling, can dedicate themselves to this activity. Such programs are scarce and constitute an exception to the rule.

Educational psychologists in many Latin American countries still have not defined their professional roles. In some cases (for example, Bricht et al, 1973) when studying the problem of the roles of the psychologist, their work in education is not mentioned and their role is completely centered on the clinical aspects only. The professional problems have been pointed out in some countries, especially in those that have legally recognized psychology.

As an example, the definition of roles and activities stated by the Colombian Federation of Psychology (1974), the largest association of psychologists in Colombia, will be presented. In other countries similar definitions have been made. In the part that defines educational psychology the Federacion Colombiana de Psicologia (1974) says:

TITLE II: Professional use of psychology in the educational field.

Article 6. In the field of education the psychologist works with children, adolescents, and adults, either with an individual or in groups, and their ordinary activity takes place within the educational system: nurseries, elementary schools, high schools, universities, vocational centers, and institutions of special education.

Article 7. In the educational field the psychologist works principally in the following tasks:

a. Designs and carries out research related especially to the following aspects: developmental processes; conditions of individual adjustment to the demands of the educational system; learning methods; educational methods for persons with defects; and, in general, psychological research related to the student, educators, and educational institutions.

b. Constructs, standardizes, validates, utilizes, and interprets psychological tests, utilizes interviews or other instruments to establish the level of development of behavior, and evaluates objectively the aptitudes, interests, personality traits, intellectual capacity of the student, and their social adaptability.

c. Assists the student in the process of vocational and occupational decision-making.

d. Establishes and applies the appropriate methods for accomplishing a follow-up of the student in areas concerning their development and psycho-social adjustment.

e. Constructs, standardizes, validates, and utilizes tests of selection and classification for teachers as well as for students.

f. Assesses the educational institution so that its organization, methods, and procedures both harmonize with the development and psychological adjustment of the student and stimulate these processes.

g. Carries out programs of prophylaxis in the educational area that help improve the conditions of development and adjustment.

h. Organizes programs of information and psychological orientation for the relatives of students.

i. Assumes the functions of psychological assistance to help individuals to clarify their adjustment difficulties and to find appropriate solutions.

j. Programs and uses appropriate techniques and specific conditions of environmental stimulation needed to prevent and correct maladjustment.

k. Programs and applies corrective behavioral procedures and techniques in these individuals who present defects that make their adjustment to the educational environment difficult.

Article 8. Due to the special terminological confusion that exists in the delineation of the functions of psychologists and educators in the educational field, the following basic terminology is adopted.

a. Academic Counseling: With this service, it is hoped that the counselor will help the student to achieve optimum school performance by providing: guides for improving study techniques; forms of self-evaluation of abilities, needs, interests, and difficulties in school; and sources of motivation, etc. By its nature this is a continued service throughout the education process.

b. Vocational-Occupational Counseling: Through this service, one tries to help the student to make decisions concerning the academic strengths of different academic institutions. The service also tries to help them to make decisions concerning the career or occupation they wish to take up. This is done through a systematic and objective study of the characteristics of the student (abilities, interests, areas of greatest capacity, etc.) and of the demands and sources of satisfaction of the school or occupational environment.

c. Professional Counseling: This can be thought of in two senses. (1) As an aid to the student in choosing and training themself to exercise a profession. This case makes reference to the level mentioned under vocational-occupational counseling.

(2) In the other sense, professional counseling refers to the psychological assistance that the specialist in psychology offers to the professional already working in their field or to the one who is at the point of beginning to practice professionally. This service tries to help place, promote, and adjust the person, and seeks to establish the optimal degree of correspondence: (a) between the abilities and capabilities of the professional and the demands of working at the profession or job; and (b) between the working conditions and the necessities, interests, and other characteristics of the individual so that the exercise of the profession is a source of satisfaction and becomes beneficial to the professional and serves to strengthen their personal adjustment and development.

d. Personal Counseling or Consulting Psychology: Psychological assistance which is given to the student in relation to their adaptation to the environment of their occupation (school or work) regarding difficulties of a predominantly emotional character and to patterns of behavior which are temporarily maladaptive. On this continuum psychological counseling has two very specific levels:

(1) Rehabilitation counseling that tries to habilitate and adjust the subject to themself and to their occupation, and

(2) Psychotherapeutic counseling or psychotherapy, that consists of a specific type of corrective experience which tends to search for better adjustment and modification of maladaptive behavior patterns that are either stereotyped (neurosis) or a patent rupture with reality (psychosis).

Conclusion

Psychological principles were introduced in education in Latin America several decades ago and were well received by teachers as well as by the general public. With the creation of the career of psychologist, an emphasis was placed on many areas of application and it was soon affirmed that educational psychology was the most critical area for developing countries.

The majority of psychologists and psychology students still feel that it is in the area of educational psychology that it is possible to contribute most decisively to the task of national development. Other areas that could also contribute in an important way are not mentioned with such frequency. At the same time, a distinction is not made between educational and school psychology, as occurs in other parts of the world.

The most highly developed areas are psychometrics, guidance and counseling, and special education. In all of these, original studies by Latin American authors have been made, and are an example of the development which has been achieved in this part of the world.

Problems with neighboring disciplines have occurred and in many countries the friction and lack of understanding still continues. In some places it has been possible to obtain a definition of roles which have been accepted by the professionals and, in this way, the situation has been clarified. It is probable that the area of applied psychology in an educational context will continue to develop. As is well-known, this is a discipline that is very sensitive to the influence of ideology as well as to the influence of technology. Due to its applied nature, it should use the new technological resources which are developing so rapidly. The changing ideological winds that blow on this continent also leave their mark on this area. In spite of everything, educational psychology is a discipline in the process of organization that will have much to say about the solution of the problems of development in Latin America.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN COLOMBIA

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Colombia and its Developing Educational System

Psychology, as any other profession, can only be understood within the context of the society in which it is developed. As Ardila (1973, p.5) points out, "No discipline emerges in the vacuum; it is always the consequence of a particular cultural frame of reference as well as the specific socio-economic conditions in which the profession develops."

In order for us to understand the developmental process of psychology, and particularly school psychology in Colombia, we must understand that we are dealing with a country in the process of development. One of the crucial aspects of a country in such a process is education, and school psychology has no meaning unless it is related to the whole process of education.

Throughout the entire history of the county, the government has voiced its interest in providing free basic education for the entire population. The Constitution upholds the right to education, and different laws and regulations have tried to make basic education mandatory for all Colombian citizens. In actual practice, however, the government has never been able to provide the necessary conditions to put basic education at the reach of all the Colombian citizens. Education in Colombia, as well as in most Latin American countries, has been and continues to be, a priviledge for a rather small socio-economic elite group.

A brief description of the Colombian educational system may bring a better understanding of the phenomenon in its full dimension.

Colombia is a country of 25 million people with remarkably high population growth. Official statistics give a 3.6% annual increase but it is believed that this percentage is even higher. The immediate consequence of this constant population growth is that Colombia has an unusually high amount of school-age population. According to the 1968 official statistics, 57.26% of the entire population was under 19 years of age.

The result of this demographic explosion is that the rate of illiteracy remains constant in spite of the significant efforts by the state to expand the services of free basic education. Complete agreement has not been reached about the exact percentage of illiteracy in our country because, among many reasons, there is no clear-cut definition of the concept of "illiteracy". It is generally accepted, however, that 37% of the population is purely illiterate (completely unable to write) and at least 60% is illiterate in either the pure or the functional sense of the word. While pure illiteracy refers to the absolute lack of opportunities, functional illiteracy is associated with the chronically high attrition rate. The reasons for this discouraging reality are many and rather complex, but they all converge, in one way or another, to the same conclusion: The system has failed not only to absorb the total amount of school-age children, but also to retain those it does take,in order to provide them with basic education.

Official statistics put out by the Ministry of Education (Ministerio de Educación Colombiano, 1974) give the following figures:

In the entire country

Of every 1,000 children of age seven:

770 start first grade
357 start third grade
216 finish fifth grade
119 start sixth grade
60 finish tenth grade
37 graduate from high school
25 start college
15 finish second year of college
11 graduate from some program of higher education.

In the urban areas

Of every 1,000 children of age seven:
780 go to first grade.
Of every 1,000 children who go to first grade:
520 start third grade
280 finish fifth grade.
Of every 1,000 who finish public elementary education:
360 start secondary education.
Of every 1,000 who start secondary education:
480 finish tenth grade
310 graduate from high school.

Of every 1,000 high school graduates,
670 start college, and
400 go beyond the second year of college.

In the rural areas

Of every 1,000 children of age seven:
600 start first grade (no kindergarten).
Of every 1,000 children who start first grade:
150 finish third grade
50 finish fifth grade.

From these figures, it is easy to see that the situation in the rural areas is significantly worse than in the urban areas and particularly in the larger cities. In the rural areas, 67% of the schools consist of only one classroom with only one teacher. It should be remembered that Colombia is a country whose rural population amounts to approximately 40%. This situation, however grave it may be, is not felt as a problem by the peasants. People in the rural communities, for the most part, do not see education as an effective tool for personal growth or social promotion. Going to school is often looked upon as a mandatory and unwanted task, similar to being drafted for the military service. Since children of peasants are considered mainly as workers for the farm, having to send a child to school means nothing but the temporary loss of a worker. The sooner they return to their work, the happier the parents will be.

The exceptionally high and generalized attrition rate throughout the entire process of formal education could constitute the main challenge for the school psychologist. However, as will be pointed out later, attrition is a highly complex problem that requires the joint efforts of many professionals, among whom the psychologist is only one. Velandia, Vargas, and Bello (1975), in a study of non-formal education, point out that the Colombian educational program is criticized for being centralist, inflexible, uniform, and developed without consultation with the consumers. The subject matter of many courses is seen by the students as irrelevant, obsolete, and unrelated to the real needs of the community. The teaching methods are judged as traditional and boring, with little room for the student's participation. Programs are geared for a "normality" that exists only as a statistical construct, with no consideration of the individual differences of the students.

It is evident that as we improve the quality of teaching, we might be able to increase the retention of students within the educational system. This has been, in fact, one of the main efforts made by the nation. In addition to the quality of teaching, however, there are many other variables that are far beyond the control of the school psychologist, or any single professional.

We have been trying to say that the state has always been and probably will continue to be incapable of providing free basic education for the entire population. For this reason, and also because the Constitution not only upholds the right to receive but also to provide education for any citizen, many private institutions and even individuals have chosen to open educational facilities as a way of performing a service and making their living. This causes Colombian education to be divided into Public and Private.

One could say roughly that the state has concentrated its efforts on the elementary education and that private enterprise (mainly Roman Catholic religious communities) have contributed more heavily to the preschool, secondary, and higher education. Out of the available elementary education, 80% is provided by the state and the other 20% by private institutions. In secondary education, the state takes care of only about 40% and the other 60% is private. As for higher education, this seems to be evenly distributed between the state and private enterprise. Preschool education, which has been limited to some 10% of the children who go to school, has been served mainly by private institutions.

In summary, one might say that in the larger cities there is enough space for every child to complete elementary education in public facilities. Attrition, therefore, is due to other variables. When it comes to secondary education, the possibilities become much narrower. Since private education is so expensive, children who cannot get into a public institution do not have much choice but to forget about continuing their educational process. In the rural communities, since most of the schools have only one class, the chances for a child to go beyond first grade are limited. With regard to higher education, the situation is certainly more difficult. Institutions of higher education, in addition to being very expensive, cannot take more than 60% of the applicants; therefore, the chances of a student getting admitted to a program of higher education are determined first by their economic solvency and second by their academic capabilities.

The Historical Roots of Psychology in the Schools

Let us take a look at the way psychology, and particularly school psychology, developed in Colombia.

With no intention of reviewing the detailed developmental history of psychology, we might say that psychology has been an important concern since the earliest times of our culture as a discipline traditionally associated with philosophy, theology, and medicine. (For a more detailed review, see Ardila, 1973.) We could safely say that whenever an educational program was started, some type of psychology was taught along with it. In 1622, for example, the Javiriana University was founded with philosophy and theology among its main courses of study. Psychology was then part of the philosophy program and was taught under the name of "Rational Psychology". As opposed to experimental psychology, rational psychology concentrated on the study of the soul and its functions as proposed by Aristotle, St. Augustine, and St. Thomas Aquinas, among others. Under these circumstances, since most of the students of those disciplines were priests, the practice of psychology was strongly associated with the practice of spiritual guidance, which was considered forbidden territory for lay professionals.

For a long time, it was felt that the majority of psychological problems were more or less equivalent to religious problems that could only be discussed within a religious frame of reference. Going to a lay person to seek advice for marriage problems, for example, was an unthinkable idea. Many hysteric reactions were attributed to diabolical interference and, therefore, exorcisms were considered the most viable treatment. Parents used to take their children to the priest to bless them and have them cured of temper tantrums.

It took many years for priests and clergymen in general to accept the fact that laymen also had the right to deal with the "conscience" of man; this progresssive change of attitude had the effect of stimulating a considerable interest in psychology among religious ministers.

The other line of growth in psychology was medicine. Courses in psychology, particularly in psychopathology, were offered as early as 1820 when the first school of medicine was opened at the Javeriana University in Bogotá. The Colombian society did not escape from the same pre-conceived distortions about mental illness that were so common in most of the countries of the world. Mental illness was to be attributed to magic intervention from diabolical spirits, and its cure was sought through either religious or magic intervention. As the teaching of psychology in the schools of medicine was expanded, mental illness began to be looked at from a different perspective. First of all, a more objective and scientific view of its nature and determinants began to be developed. Secondly, more professional and humane treatments for the mentally ill were proposed as alternatives for the traditional ones of incarceration, punishment, and hiding of the patient.

Along with the instruction of psychology in schools of theology, philosophy, or medecine, several efforts of scholars could be mentioned as examples of early attempts in this field (Ardila, 1973). Francisco Jose de Caldas (1768-1816), one of the martyrs of the War of Independence, wrote a solid and thoughtful essay about the "influence of the climate in the organisms." Luis Lopez de Meza (1884-1967), a physician and sociology scholar, wrote extensively on different topics of psychology and in 1920 developed perhaps the first psychological instrument to measure general intelligence and adaptation procedures. None of these attempts, however, can be considered as the beginning of psychology as a profession.

The real and solid starting point of psychology as a profession in Colombia was the opening of the "Office of Psychotechnique" in the National University of Bogotá in 1939, with its main purpose being the choosing of candidates for that University. This office was in operation until 1948 when it developed into the "Institute of Applied Psychology" under the direction of Mercedes Rodrigo de Bellido, a Spanish psychologist who had studied in Switzerland with Claparede and Bouvet. The Institute of Applied Psychology had the following sections: the section of childhood and adolescence, whose main purpose was the study of the elementary and secondary child; the section of higher education, whose main purpose was the selection and guidance of candidates for getting into higher education institutions, mainly geared to the National University; the section of research, whose main purpose was the gathering, processing, and analysis of psychological information; the section of psychomedicine, associated with the school of medicine; and the section of teaching, whose main purpose was to develop and administer a curriculum geared to the granting of a professional degree in psychology.

The last section was one of the most active in the Institute. It accepted students almost from its inception and in 1952 it granted the BS degree in Psychology to the first 11 students. Beginning at this point, we can say that there was professional psychology in Colombia.

In 1957, the Institute of Applied Psychology grew into a full-sized school of psychology. In 1966, as a result of a general reorganization of the National University, it became a Department of the School of Arts and Sciences, but kept its prerogative of organizing and administering a curriculum geared to the granting of a degree in professional psychology.

The National University has been preparing psychologists regularly since 1952. Official statistics show that 411 psychologists completed their professional studies in that department between 1952 and 1972.

In 1966, the second school of psychology was opened at the Xaveriana University, which is a private Jesuit pontifical university. Father Alvaro Jimenez, a reputable and dynamic psychologist, was the inspiration for and first dean of that school. The Department of Psychology of the National University had been traditionally distinguished by placing a heavy emphasis on experimental psychology, particularly of the behavioristic type. The Xaveriana School of Psychology grew from the old school of Philosophy and Humanities and was designed as another alternative within the many approaches in psychology, placing its emphasis on a more humanistic view, particularly of a psychoanalytic type. These discrepancies in the scientific approach created some antagonism between the professionals of the two institutions. As time went by, most discrepancies have faded and turned into cooperation and exchange of professionals between the two institutions. The National University has somewhat tempered its behavioristic approach and the Xaveriana University has become more receptive to experimental psychology. Between 1966 and 1972, 198 psychologists received professional training in psychology at the Xaveriana University.

Since 1971, six more schools of psychology have been opened in: the Universidad del Norte in Barranquilla, the Universidad de los Andes in Bogotá, the Universidad INCA de Colómbia in Bogotá, the Universidad del Valle in Cali, the Universidad de San Buenaventura in Medellin, and the Universidad Católica in Bogotá. None of the seven programs in psychology are intended to provide specialists in any type of professional psychology. The great majority of the programs in psychology are inspired by the underlying philosophy that the general practitioner of psychology should be able to perform, within certain limits, any of the basic tasks of the psychological profession, either in the clinical, educational, industrial, or social areas. Some schools, however, give the students the opportunity to emphasize one specific area during the fifth year of training, with the precondition that all the other areas have been already taken care of at a satisfactory level.

In actual practice, however, the main emphasis of the program in most schools is on clinical matters. Clinical psychology has been and continues to be the most prestigious and therefore the most appealing field for a great number of students. The fact that clinical psychology is so strongly associated with the medical profession, along with the opportunity to share the prestige of this highly rated profession, make clinical psychology the main target of many prospective psychologists. The delusion, however, is great when the psychologists realize that getting a job in a clinical facility is perhaps more difficult than they had anticipated. Openings are scarce and the work in a clinical facility certainly demands more skill than is usually obtained in a five-year undergraduate program. This first contact with the reality of the job market usually gives the psychologist the opportunity to begin to reassess their professional aspirations and possibilities with a much more objective attitude. Then the psychologist begins to consider other alternatives that may be less glamorous from the social standpoint, but that are certainly closer to reality. One such possibility is psychology as it is applied to education. The number of openings in this area is unquestionably larger and the professional control is not as rigorous as in the clinical profession. The price, however, is having to accept being identified with education instead of the medical profession. The change is not easy to make, and this may account, at least partially, for the tendency to approach the practice of school psychology with a clinical rather than an educational frame of reference, as will be explained in the following pages.

Current Functioning

Three developmental stages are usually identified in tracing the history of school psychology in the United States (Bardon & Bennet, 1974): a testing stage, when the role of the school psychologist was conceived as centered in the administration and interpretation of measuring instruments; a clinical stage, when the role of the school psychologist was understood as a diagnostician who deals mostly with the identification and diagnosis of those cases that, for one reason or another, lie in the extremes of the distribution; and finally, a psychoeducational stage, in which the school psychologist is understood as a professional who is committed to the total educational community and tries to intervene in the educational process as a whole. In the United States it is generally accepted that school psychology has already reached the third stage in its developmental process. However, as Magary (1967) shows, if we ask what are the specific tasks that a school psychologist must do in order to perform at a level that meets the requirements of such a stage, the answer is not unanimous and perhaps it never will be.

Surprisingly enough, school psychology in Colómbia has gone through the same three developmental stages alluded to by Bardon & Bennet (1974) in reference to the developmental history of school psychology in the United States. In stage one the first Colombian psychologists devoted most of their time and energies to the screening of candidates for admission to institutions of higher education (Ardila, 1973). As the number of school psychologists grew and their work was expanded to secondary education institutions, their central activity was the appraisal of the youngsters' vocational fitness by means of psychological tests. This has been, at least until the end of the last decade, one of the most important activities of school psychologists. Many schools used to hire, and still do so, a psychologist just to do the "professional orientation of senior high school students" on a contract basis, assuming perhaps that this was the only reason for the presence of a school psychologist in an educational setting. It was very common (and still sometimes occurs) for a psychologist to contract for the task of "orientador profesional", with some eight or ten different high schools at the same time. The "orientacion profesional" was aimed at appraising the students' fitness for a particular career before entering the university.

It is interesting to note that, since the Colombian University system usually does not provide for any type of general studies, the students have to choose a specific school to study a specific career before they decide to enter the university. Once inside, changing from one school to another is extremely difficult and in many instances, impossible. In that context, professional orientation has been considered a very important activity during the student's time in high school. It has usually consisted of the administration, scoring, and interpretation of a battery of tests (for the most part straight translations of foreign instruments) and the holding of a brief interview with each one of the students to communicate the results and, in some cases, to give them a brief written report.

When psychologists began to be hired by the schools to work on a full or a part-time basis (stage two), they also used to show some of the peculiarities related to their professional practice: the clinical emphasis which had been traditionally given to the curricular training of Colombian school psychologists led them, on many occasions, to approach their work in the schools with the psychopathology model already learned and practiced in clinical institutions. School psychologists were not looking for clients but for "patients"; assessment was "diagnosis"; the group was not important, the individual was; mainstreamed students were not a concern for them, the deviant ones were the actual reason for the psychologists to be in the school; the psychological service belonged more to the medical than to the educational branch.

This approach, however, has been changing in recent years (stage three) and today it is fair to say that Colombian school psychologists do not differ substantially from their American colleagues, either in their way of understanding their work or in their multivariate manner of approaching it. Even though no systematic studies have been done in this particular aspect, general observation would permit hypothesizing that the differences between the Colombian and American school psychologists are negligible in this particular regard. The fact that a great number of professors in the schools of psychology and education have been trained in the United States may be sufficient explanation for the close similarities in the working models between the two countries. Other types of problems establish, perhaps, more remarkable differences, as we will see next.

First of all, we have to recognize that Colómbian psychologists usually face a big and frustrating discrepancy between the highly developed technology they have just learned (or heard mentioned) during their training period, and the lack of basic materials for their actual practice in most of the Colombian settings. Most of the instruments used by psychologists in their professional practice are just straight translations of American or European instruments with very little restandardization, if any at all. Spanish translations of relevant books are increasing, but the acquisition of magazines and periodicals, even in their original languages (which not everybody can read) is extremely difficult, not to say impossible in many instances.

Another striking difference refers to the status role of the school psychologist; this role is still not clearly differentiated from that of the educational psychologist, the guidance counselor, and in some cases, the social worker. The fact that these professionals do not have a long established tradition in the educational community accounts for the tendency to pile all these functions on just one professional who is, in some cases, the guidance counselor or the school psychologist. Hiring either one of the above named professionals seems to have the implicit connotation that all the aforementioned functions have been already taken care of.

Along with the professionals coming from the conventional programs in psychology, education, or counseling and guidance, a new professional in this field is emerging with undeniable vitality: the expert in Juvenile Pastoral. The need for this professional evolved from the fact that

Colómbia is a country whose population is reported to be 95% Catholic. It was pointed out at the beginning of this paper that psychology, as a way of dealing with people's "consciences" was, until recently, strongly associated with "spiritual guidance" and therefore was considered, for the most part, a private territory of church-related ministers. As the psychological profession developed, many religious ministers began to receive training in psychology, moved perhaps by the theological principle that "grace perfects nature but is not a substitute for it".

In January of 1970, the "Latin American Institute of Juvenile Pastoral" was opened as a combined effort of the Colombian Bishop's Conference and the Major Superiors of several religious communities in Colómbia. The main purpose of this institute was to prepare "leaders in juvenile pastoral", not only for Colómbia but also for the rest of Latin American countries. The Institute was intended mainly to serve religious students, but it was also open to laymen who showed genuine interest in the field. Reverend Jesus Andres Vela was appointed as first director of the Institute. Father Vela is a relatively young Jesuit psychologist who had come from Spain several years before, bringing with him great prestige, not only as a psychologist but also as a highly respected priest. He is a specialist in what could be called religious psychology and has traveled through a great part of the world conducting workshops, seminars, lectures, and sensitivity training groups for bishops, superiors of religious communities, and ecclesiastic groups in general. In spite of his orthodox attitude and religious descipline, Father Vela's mentality is several decades ahead of the great majority of priests and bishops in Latin America. He is a strong believer in spiritual freedom and human responsibility but particularly in the Rogerian ideas about the inner capability that people have to make their own choices and decide their own destiny if provided with the necessary conditions to do so. His publications, either by himself or co-authored by some other members of the Institute (approximately 25 in number), include books, essays, pamphlets, and articles. Most interesting among all of his ideas is the concept of "pastoral" as it relates to "cocientización", a term that could very well be translated as the well-known concept of "self-awareness". Father Vela has always maintained that the most important thing in pastoral is to make a person fully aware of themself and of their transcendental destiny, ready to make and capable of making decisions with which they can responsibly live. If we can prepare a person to be honest with themselves, chances are that, other things being equal, they will choose to be a good Christian or at least an authentic and fully-functioning person in the Rogerian sense of the word. Even if the final goal of making a good Christian is not reached, Father Vela has always believed that it is preferable to be an honest person in a natural state of awareness rather than a hypocritical, compulsive, religious practitioner.

These ideas, plus the unmistakable siding with the poor as "the suffering body of Christ", were misinterpreted and considered dangerous within the explosive situation that characterizes most of the Latin American countries, Colómbia included. As a result, the Institute began to lose the trust of both the government and the Church. At the end of 1975, the Institute was closed by order of the Colombian Cardinal Monsignor Anibal Muñoz Duque, with the argument that a re-examination of its philosophy was necessary because of ideological internal disagreements among the administrative staff.

The years in the Latin American Institute of Juvenile Pastoral, however, are too important to pass unnoticed. The 384 students (mainly nuns and priests) came from 20 countries, received training, and graduated either as "Experts in Juvenile Pastoral" (2 years) or as "Licentiates (BA) in Education" majoring in "Juvenile Pastoral" (4 years). They are not psychologists, nor do they claim to be. But they have received considerable training in psychology, particularly in group process, developmental psychology, adolescent psychology, value clarification processes, counseling, and of course, dynamics of self-awareness (conscientización), that enable them to perform many tasks that are of a strictly psychological nature. Most of those graduates are now working in elementary and secondary educational institutions, performing services that are usually within the competency of a school or a counseling psychologist.

In summary, we can safely say that school or educational psychology is served by professionals coming from programs of General Education or Psychopedagogy, Counseling and Guidance, and Juvenile Pastoral, in addition to the professional school psychologist. The quality of the service seems to be related more to the person who is responsible for providing it rather than to the training they have received.

The Need for Legal Protection

Getting legal recognition for a profession is a phenomenon closely associated with the state of development of the country. Contrary to what happens in more developed countries, the number of professions that are protected by licensing or certification regulations in Colómbia is rather small, and psychology is not yet among them. This lack of legal protection has hurt all the areas of the psychological profession, but mainly and particularly the educational field. School or educational psychology can be practiced by just about anybody who claims to have some knowledge in the field.

In view of the continuous and systematic invasion of the psychological profession by non-professional and, in many cases, unqualified practitioners, (and with the purpose of protecting the profession as well as the society) the Colombian Federation of Psychology asked the Legislature for such protection. A well conceived and carefully elaborated bill was presented to the Colombian Congress in 1973. The bill begins by defining who can lawfully be called a psychologist, and states that only those who have obtained a professional degree in psychology can be called psychologists. Then the work of the psychologist is defined as centered around three main activities: Research, Teaching, and Professional Practice. Professional practice is also defined as centered around four major areas, namely Clinical, Educational (School), Industrial, and Social. Basic Guidelines for the training of psychologists are given, and rigorous and clear-cut ethical standards are set forth.

The bill has not provoked too much opposition in either the House or the Senate and has been approved in all the legislative committees in which it has been presented. However, due perhaps to its lack of political appeal, it has not moved with the necessary speed to be converted into National Law.

In spite of the confusion that has traditionally existed between professional and non-professional psychology, school and educational psychology have made a significant contribution to the formal education enterprise, both in the public and in the private sectors.

The schools of education have improved the quality of their programs because of the help given by good professors of educational and school psychology. The Ministry of Education has made abundant and frequent use of school psychologists for the reformation of elementary and secondary education curricula. Experiences in special education, pilot programs to test curricular innovations, and non-formal education attempts, made both by the government and the private sector, have all received strong support and cooperation from psychologists deeply committed to the educational enterprise. School psychology as a profession as well as a science has been present in most of the greatest efforts the country has made (and is still making) to improve qualitatively and quantitatively the education of the Colombian people.

Future Contributions in Formal and Non-Formal Education

The aforementioned statement should not be meant to say that school psychology has made the best possible contribution toward solving the crucial problem of education in Colómbia. To help improve the formal education system is by no means a task to be underestimated. After all, some 50% of the population would receive some benefit from such a gigantic effort. The main concern with regard to such a policy is that the improvement of the formal education system will do nothing but strengthen the power of the elite that already has access to education, thereby perpetuating the inequality that education is supposed to fight.

If school and educational psychology are to make a broader contribution to the education in Colómbia, they have to join the group of those who are supporting and stimulating the promising projects of non-formal education. It was stated at the beginning of this paper that all the efforts made both by the public and private sector have failed in their attempt to put the educational services at the reach of the entire population. As a matter of fact, even though the absolute number of those who receive some kind of education is larger every day, the percentage of illiteracy remains constant at best. Statistical figures reveal (Velandia et al, 1975) that, assuming that the population growth remains constant (around 3.6) and that the school spaces are increased by a ratio of 4% annually, by the year 1980 4.2 million Colombian children between 5 and 14 years of age will be out of the classrooms because of lack of space. The most optimistic figures suggest that the institution of formal education will, at best, be able to keep up with the present rate of illiteracy with little chance of decreasing it.

In view of the aforementioned reality, some outstanding educational leaders are beginning to look at non-formal education as the most realistic alternative to cope with the problem of illiteracy.

In the middle of 1975, Wilson Velandia, Emily Vargas de Adams, and Gilberto Bello came up with the first exploratory study concerning non-formal education in Colombia. Such a study, because of its candid simplicity, methodical cleanliness, originality, and particularly its practical nature, constitutes one of the most serious, interesting, and enlightening pieces of educational research ever done in Colómbia. It is not within the scope of this paper to review the whole study which is over 500 pages in length. Let us, however, present some of its most pertinent features.

The first task undertaken by the investigators was to put into perspective the concept of non-formal education. Education is viewed by these imaginative investigators as a continuum that can be broken down into four segments: A /B /C /D, of which segment A and B represent formal education, segment D represents casual or accidental education, and segment C represents non-formal education.

Segment A, or formal education, encompasses all the educational programs that directly depend on the Ministry of Education for the purposes of planning, execution, funding, curriculum, scheduling, maintaining attendance records, supervision, evaluation, and approval. These programs follow the patterns of conventional education, are sequentially organized, and are geared to the granting of a degree or diploma.

Segment B encompasses those programs that maintain some of the aforementioned dependency relationships to the Ministry of Education or have clearly defined educational structure. These programs usually have: conventional planning, a rather flexible curriculum, and for the most part, a traditional teaching methodology.

Segment C encompasses those projects that are independent from the Ministry of Education, obey no rigorous programming, have no preset sequential levels, and are in general not geared to the awarding of any degree or diploma with official recognition from the government. Its organization is autonomous and flexible for all purposes in which the formal education programs have direct supervision and control from the State. These are the projects or programs that are strictly considered as belonging to the non-formal education category.

Segment D, the casual or accidental education, refers to that type of education that occurs without any purposeful structuring or planning. Education which is obtained by traveling, the process of socialization, and the education within the family environment, are examples of such a type of education.

A general conclusion from this investigation is that the distinction between formal and non-formal education has to be viewed as a continuum rather than a dichotomous concept.

As the investigation began to move through the planning stages, it didn't take long for the authors to realize that they could not work with the entire population on non-formal education projects. Following anthropological and educational criteria previously set forth by them with the help of the advisory committee, the group decided to work with a stratified sample of projects. Four major states were selected as representatives of four different cultural regions of the country. Five major cities in each state were chosen, also following pre-determined anthropological and educational selection criteria. Then the most relevant projects of non-formal education in each city were identified, giving a total of 432 projects of non-formal education in the 20 chosen cities. Each project was carefully studied following a methodology meticulously developed by the investigators and tested in pilot studies.

The data were submitted to a simple but thoughtful statistical process and the findings were categorized into 10 groups of conclusions accompanied by an equal number of groups of recommendations. Out of this, 50 conclusions were drawn and 38 recommendations were made. The following are some of the most pertinent conclusions: (a) Non-formal education (NFE) projects emphasize the following areas: community development, basic and family education, nutrition and health, arts and crafts, agriculture, aesthetic and religious education, and recreation and sports. (b) There is a high positive correlation between the amount of NFE projects and the degree of development of the community in which those projects are located. (c) Of the total number of NFE projects that were studied, 50% were started between 1900 and 1967; the other 50% were originated between 1968 and 1972. (d) Poor planning, unclear goals and objectives, little or no ongoing analysis, and low levels of sophistication are among the most salient characteristics of the NFE projects. (e) The highest percentage of NFE programs is geared to adults rather than young people. (f) Privately funded and administered NFE projects outnumber the ones which are funded and administered by the State. (g) The most urgent need for the improvement of NFE programs is the availability of human resources, at different levels and for different purposes.

The following are some of the most pertinent recommendations: (a) Adoption of a national policy on NFE, in order to channel the private initiative and thereby insure the effectiveness of the programs. (b) Strengthening of the ties between formal and non-formal education programs in order to insure harmonious cooperation and complementary actions rather than opposition and competition. (c) NFE programs need all the help they can possibly get; consultation services are sorely needed in planning, development, administration, and evaluation of almost any program. (d) There is an urgent need for the development of NFE programs for the younger population. The assumption that the younger population is taken care of in the formal education system is unwarranted. (e) Under the present circumstances, the greatest amount of effort should concentrate on the training of human resources at different levels and in the different areas of concern for the NFE projects.

It does not seem necessary at this time to emphasize the significant input that school psychology can offer to the gigantic enterprise of non-formal education. The projects are numbered in the thousands. The need is a soaring cry for help. The school psychologist could help in the planning and the setting up of goals for those projects. They could provide consultation for the training of personnel for different purposes. They could help in the development of simple but reliable methods and instruments of evaluation; could design programs for family and sex education, mental health, decision making processes, and many other areas which involve psychology.

The refined and sophisticated processes of identifying and treating learning disabled and emotionally disturbed children are by no means negligible tasks in the work of a school psychologist. In Colombia, however, they are unquestionably superseded by the millions of children who have not been given the chance to show how much they can or cannot learn. Being illiterate is a far more severe problem than being dyslexic, dysnomic, dysgraphic, or perceptually impaired.

There is little doubt that school psychologists can bring considerable improvement to the quality for formal education, thereby contributing to increasing the retention rate within the system. However, no matter how good our institutions of formal education are, they will still remain the privilege of an exclusive minority. Non-formal education is finding its way as a positive answer to the problem of illiteracy and is bound to constitute the real challenge for the school psychologist in the years ahead.

Summary

This paper was intended to set forth the following basic ideas: school psychology can only be understood within the general frame of reference of the educational situation of the country in which it develops. Colómbia is a country with remarkably high rates of illiteracy as well as very high education attrition rates. Insufficiency of public education facilities, high costs of private education, and lack of faith in education as an effective channel of socio-economic promotion are usually considered the most important factors in both illiteracy and attrition rates. School psychology has offered significant contributions to the development of formal education.

With regard to the developmental process of psychology (school psychology included), there has been a consistent interest in such a discipline throughout the history of the country. The official starting date of psychology as a profession occurred in the year 1948, when the Institute of Applied Psychology was founded in the National University and began to train professional psychologists. Since there are no specialized programs to train school psychologists in the true sense of the word, the tasks of school psychologists are performed mainly by general practitioners of psychology, usually honed on the job. These tasks are also performed by professionals in other fields that also place an emphasis in psychology, such as psychopedagogy, counseling and guidance, and juvenile pastoral.

Securing legal protection from the legislature has been one of the main concerns of professional psychologists, but this aspiration has not as yet been fulfilled.

Looking at the future, it seems undeniable that school psychologists can offer a significant input to the improvement of the quality of formal education. Such an input will most likely result in an increment of the retention rate, which is one of the most urgent needs at this time. The improvement of formal education, however, does not seem to be the answer to the chronic problem of illiteracy. Some educational leaders are looking at non-formal education as a more plausible and realistic answer to such a problem. Exploratory studies recently conducted seem highly encouraging. School psychology is bound to play a very important role in the development and improvement of projects of non-formal education.

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PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SCHOOLS IN ENGLISH SPEAKING CANADA

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A Brief History of the Use of Psychologists and Counselors in the Schools

School psychology is a rapidly developing field which has arrived at the point where it deserves its own review, a review that would cut across many psychological boundaries. As will be noted in this chapter, school psychology and the work of a school psychologist is neither clearly in the field of educational psychology nor clinical psychology, but a unique combination of the two.

The concept of the school psychologist is that of a professional, applied psychologist functioning in an area that concerns itself with the total well-being of the pupil as they interact within the educational process. Within this context, the development of school psychology in Canada has taken a unique trend toward interaction with related professionals such as social work, psychiatry, nursing, and teaching. It is fair to say that a discussion of the history of the use of psychologists in the schools in English speaking Canada is very difficult since access to written material on this issue is rather limited. Consequently, the author has made extensive use of correspondence and interviews with known leading psychologists in the field; i.e., with Drs. S. C. T. Clarke, Ken Grierson, John Paterson, Carl Safran, and others.

In Canada there has been a continuing trend toward longer periods of formal education and higher levels of academic achievement. Porter (in Blair, 1968) reported that the percentage of youth in Canada, ages 15 to 19, still in school, rose from 35.5 % in 1941 to 58.5% in 1961. In the 20 to 24 age group, the percentage of the population still in school rose from 3.7% to 8% over the corresponding period of time. This explosion of students in the schools created a need for specialized services. It was very evident during the years prior to 1960 that special psychological services were needed. For example, in the early 1900's there was a report in the Calgary Herald that they had need for more attendance officers. This advertisement for attendance officers clearly indicated the early development of psychological and counseling services. However, it wasn't until the 1950's that the Prairie Provinces first began to appoint what were known as "visiting teachers". Visiting teachers were individuals with at least five years of teaching experience who had a master's degree or a diploma in educational psychology. The visiting teachers would be sent to the home to make contact with the students and their parents when the situation demanded it, and would report back to the school.

Psychological services and the work of the school psychologist did not really come into focus in Canada until after the war. Prior to the war, we had the work of the attendance officers and visiting teachers. When the veterans returned from the war, many of them took advantage of the government's offer of free education. Many of these former attendance officers went into training as school psychologists.

The earliest training program in school psychology was a "Diploma in Mental Health" offered by the University of Toronto. Since the 1950's the major training of school psychologists had taken place in Ontario at the University of Toronto. However, a significant advance in the training and use of school psychologists was made in the Western Provinces. For every large urban center you would find one psychologist for approximately 100 schools. Central office staff would then function as social workers, reading specialists, and speech therapists; they would do the testing, remedial instruction, and in some cases, psychological therapy. During the 1950's school psychologists specialized more at the elementary school level, but there were some placements at the high school level as well.

It was also during those early years (in the 1950's) that the "team" concept evolved as part of the total package of mental health services in the schools. The team would be comprised of a counselor, a school psychologist, a reading specialist, a speech therapist, and also a psychiatrist. The latter would be used primarily for consultation purposes. These teams would function mostly in the urban centers and usually you would have no more than one team responsible for all the schools in the city.

After 1945, the Faculty of Education of the University of Alberta established a program in Educational Psychology for the training of guidance counselors. It wasn't until 1962, however, that the Education Clinic was established at this same University to train both counselors and school psychologists in diagnosis and solution of learning problems. The main focus was diagnostic testing. During this time the public school systems and the separate (Catholic) school systems appointed "pupil personnel" workers to Central Office. These "counseling psychologists" were already on the scene in many junior and senior high schools. There were some 140 such personnel in a system like the Calgary Public School System.

In 1955 there were some 39 persons that attended the Second Annual Provincial Counselor's Conference at Red Deer. In 1961 this organization became known as The Guidance Counsel.

During the late 1950's, the work of the psychologist was primarily in the area of guidance and counseling. Individual appraisal through the use of tests of ability, interest, and aptitudes were given. Individual counseling and referral to the National Employment Service for the placement of students wishing to start work also took place. By this time, then, the use of the psychologist in the schools was fairly well established (Blair, 1968).

School Psychological Services in Canadian Provinces

Saskatchewan.

The Mental Health Movement hit Saskatchewan in approximately the 1950's. At that time, Saskatchewan was probably ahead of Alberta in terms of the psychological services and the use of the psychologist in the schools. They had psychologists working with teachers, but they were more "clinical psychologists" than "educational psychologists". Apparently, history showed that the communication between the clinical psychologists and the teachers was not conducive to advancing the work of the school psychologist, and hence the nature of the psychological services in Saskatchewan has waned over the years. Since that time, other provinces have increased the use of their psychological services, whereas Saskatchewan has maintained their level of service to the schools from what it was in the 1960's. A curious note in Saskatchewan was that the Saskatchewan Legislature ruled that one could not be a psychologist if you were working in the schools. This was quite clearly due to the fact that the clinical psychologists had tremendous difficulties in relating their theoretical knowledge to the practical setting of the educational process and to the personality and learning problems of the pupils.

In the rural areas prior to the 1950's and as early as the 1930's, there were counselors in the schools, but not "psychologists." During the war counselors were used as health teachers and as vocational guidance workers. After the war a serious program of training began, but there seemed to have been a lost faith in the use of intelligence tests and in the need for testing in general. The veterans who returned to train as psychologists were not likely to think of the intelligence score as useful, since they themselves had given up on the idea of education largely because of the discouragement on the use of scores prior to the war. Other provinces in Canada used psychological tests of various kinds, from the 1930's to the 1950's, and had reports very heavily biased in terms of statistics. These reports completely turned the teachers against the use of psychological testing. This attitude still prevails in the schools today.

During the 1950's, most Canadian universities initiated a counselor education program. In those years the universities saw the counselor education program primarily suited for counselor training on the very practical level and not as an academic preparation for professional psychological service outside the school setting.

Manitoba.

In Manitoba the psychological services were primarily in the nature of a medical model. In fact, today there still exists the need for medical prescriptions for children with educational problems before one can get psychological diagnosis and treatment. This is a hang-over from the early medical models where the psychiatrist was considered the head of the team. This model for school psychological services is still there today and has kept Manitoba from using applied psychologists as a part of the team offering services to schools. Today, Manitoba has many trained psychologists working in the schools, but they still favor the medical model especially in areas such as Brandon.

Eastern provinces.

In the eastern seaboard provinces, there was relatively little work done in the area of counseling and school psychological services prior to the war. After the war and up to the 1950's, because of their depressed economic conditions, these provinces could not afford to train nor hire school psychologists. Most of their services were in the guidance and testing areas. Guidance workers were given both teaching and counseling duties in the schools. There still are fewer, per capita, counselors in the eastern provices today than all other provinces in Canada.

British Columbia.

On the western seaboard the Province of British Columbia has an effective team approach. They use visiting teachers, special education teachers, speech therapists, reading specialists, and school psychologists. B. C.'s development of the use of the school psychologist took a similar trend to that of the Prairie Provinces. Most of the early emphasis was in the nature of guidance and counseling services provided at the senior high school levels. It wasn't until the early 1950's that the school psychologist was used at the elementary school levels for diagnosis, consultation, and remediation purposes.

Ontario.

In many ways the Province of Ontario has been the pioneering province in the area of psychological services. Many leaders have come from Ontario. The early program began at the University of Toronto. Other parts of Canada have relied on Ontario for leadership.

Alberta.

Many of the early uses of the school psychologist grew according to administrative decisions. For example, if a social worker was the first to be hired in a large rural or urban center, generally there tended to be more social workers hired to work along with the first one. This trend was quite evident when one reads and listens to retired superintendents of schools. For example, in Calgary and Edmonton, where the first special class for retarded children was founded in 1919, many more special classes began to be opened up very early in the 1930's. In 1938 guidance became an actual subject for study and thus guidance counselors were hired to teach these courses. In 1947 the first counselor was appointed at the Lethbridge Collegiate Institute. Such an appointment led to further need for counselors. Training programs for counselors and school psychologists have maintained steady growth since 1962. It was then that the training programs for school psychologists began at the University of Alberta and the West began to take a progressively more leading role. The University of Alberta today trains more school psychologists and counselors than any other university in Canada (Janzen, 1976).

Quebec.

The Province of Quebec is similarly forward thinking in the use of school psychologists and it has an excellent pupil personnel service. The use of the school psychologist in French speaking Canada will be documented in a separate chapter of this book (see Gauthier, pp.184-190).

The Development of Pupil Personnel Services

It should be noted that primary reference in this sector has been made only to the public school systems in Canada. It is widely recognized that Canada has both public and separate school systems as well as individual private institutions. The writer would like to stress that it has not been his intention to avoid any reference to the separate schools except to say that the development of the school psychologist has taken similar trends in both systems. In some school districts, the Catholic school systems may have more advanced school psychological services than the public school systems. However, the opposite may be true in other areas of the country. It is recognized that whether public or separate, schools must work together for the common goal of our students' well-being. It may also be noteworthy that in Canada it is often difficult, if not impossible, to separate the terms "school psychologist" and "counselor". Many school systems today have defined new and separate roles for each category, but many have not. The terms could be used interchangeably in many parts of the country.

Since the 1960's, statistics on manpower trends in Canada indicate that approximately 25% of the teaching staff in the western Canadian provinces are involved in some kind of counseling work. This estimate, it appears, is similar to that of other provinces and shows the increasing use of the counselor. However, in the 1960's the statistics from Canada Manpower indicated that 81% of those engaged in guidance work in Alberta had no certificate, diploma, or degree in counseling. In Alberta, 90% of the school principals were engaged in guidance work, and of these, 91% had no certificate, diploma, or degree in counseling. Students served by the "school psychologists" in the form of guidance workers were mainly at the senior high school levels, although a start had been made in extending services to elementary schools in the 1950's.

During the period of 1954 to 1959 the Dominion of Canada Bureau of Statistics indicated that an estimated 8% of the school age population were considered exceptional in one or more areas so as to be in need of one or more special educational services. Application of these figures to an urban center such as Edmonton with a school-age population of 70,000 would indicate a need for special education services of some kind for 5,600 students, far in excess of the approximately 1,200 students that were in the special classes during the 1960's. Today the number in these classes is slightly larger than this 1,200 figure, but not significantly so. For example, the city of Calgary has some 1,200 students in special classes in 1976. The need is there, but the trained personnel are not available.

Traditionally, pupil personnel services have comprised the categories of guidance services, health services, psychological services, school social-work services, and school guidance services. Two other specialties which have been gaining increasing recognition in recent years should be added: remedial teaching and speech therapy. In the early years, most of the psychologists were teachers who had very little or no training in psychology. Since 1960 teacher training has been a requirement for professional training. In the early 1950's school psychologists were usually trained at a diploma level beyond the bachelor's degree. Since 1960 most school psychologists have attained either a master's degree in education or in arts, with sufficient other courses to provide them with a teaching certificate.

The school psychologist was not a reality in many of the rural schools in Canada until the late 1950's. Before then you may have had principals and physical education teachers taking the role of a guidance worker, plus an attendance officer who would be responsible for a large rural county, visiting the homes and functioning as part-time school counselors. Since 1960, considerable changes in the quality and quantity of pupil personnel services have taken place in the rural centers. The demands of home and school associations have improved and extended psychological services and have resulted in appointments of Directors of Pupil Personnel Services.

It should, perhaps, be explained that the smaller centers, through their school psychologists or supervisors of guidance, have tried to maintain a wide variety of services. One professionally trained psychologist may have been expected to perform the varied tasks of several specialists in a large city school system. Furthermore, few of the smaller centers and non-urban areas had an organized pupil personnel service. In areas of Canada where they would appoint part-time school counselors, there would be very little committment to pupil personnel services. In short, few smaller centers and non-urban areas provided specialized professional help required by the pupils in the schools.

Even today a considerable expansion of services is required before psychologists can meet the need that exists in Canada. For example, in the northern parts of Canada, schools may be separated by at least 400 to 600 miles. One psychologist may be hired to provide services. The Province of Alberta has been particularly fortunate in that the Social Credit Government placed a heavy emphasis on education and funding for the various programs in the pupil personnel services areas. In recent years the new Conservative Government has given large sums of money for extending the services of the school psychologist, reading specialist, and speech therapist to the rural areas.

Today the school psychologist and the school counselor have been widely accepted in all provinces. With a public health nurse, the reading specialist, the social worker, and the speech therapist, psychological services extend a vital link between the home and school. The extent to which this team promotes mental health services beyond the school depends on the size of the community and other services available.

In 1969 the Alberta Mental Health Study indicated that despite serious limitations, school guidance and counseling services in Alberta schools were substantial and comparable with other provinces. In view of the needs of school children, however, the situation is far from acceptable. The report indicated a need for trained counselors and school psychologists to help students in areas of individual guidance, personal and emotional problems, assessment in terms of aptitude, vocational interest, and academic ability. Today most large cities have special educational facilities.

There is an ever-increasing need for school psychologists. However, the writer feels that in Canada this is an emerging specialty at best. The Psychologists' Associations across Canada are beginning to establish the practice of psychology as a professional discipline. School psychologists are seen as one aspect of the general professional practice of psychology. Today practicing school psychologists function as clinical, educational, and developmental specialists. Because it is an emerging specialty, training programs and significant developments in the universities must include a broad search of relevant literature in educational, clinical, and psychiatric areas. Part of the concept of the school psychologist is that they function as a team member in consultation with other specialists. In Canada there have been special difficulties in that one member of a team, the speech therapist, has been relatively difficult to find and even more difficult to train. The only Canadian Universities training speech therapists in the 1960's were McGill and the University of Toronto. The University of Alberta began its speech therapy training in 1969. There may be other universities now training speech therapists and it is becoming increasingly more likely that a speech therapist would be placed on the team to provide services to the schools.

A characteristic of our maturing society is the proliferation of agencies of socialization. The school psychologist has a primary function in this role. Today the school psychologist must be familiar with the contemporary influences on the learning and development of children that would assuredly include such things as the family, peer group, the church, the residential community, the business community, the physical environment, the mass media, and, of course, the school. In view of the rather ominous task that this would place on the school psychologist, Canadian Universities have a grave responsibility in meeting the needs of our children in areas where the school psychologist can make a contribution.

Current Status, Training and Functions of the School Psychologist

Current status.

According to recent statistics of the Psychologists' Associations in Canada, approximately 25% of the Certified Psychologists in Canada work in school settings. The province which has the largest number of certified psychologists is the Province of Quebec. Here there are approximately 1,200 registered psychologists. Ontario is the next largest province with approximately 900 certified psychologists. Alberta and British Columbia are the next largest provinces with approximately 500 certified psychologists each.

Most provinces have provincial legislation covering the work of the psychologist; however a province like British Columbia does not have any legislation covering psychologists, hence it is difficult to determine the current status of the school psychologist in that province. Manitoba has a PhD registration act for certified psychologists. That is, psychologists must attain a doctoral level before they can be considered "psychologists". Manitoba has some 200 to 300 certified psychologists. Saskatchewan has some 200 certified psychologists with an act in legislature describing their status, function, and role. The eastern provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, have some 200 to 300 certified psychologists combined. They are just beginning to establish legislation regarding certification, the nature of the training, and the qualifications required.

In most provinces there exists a considerable difference of opinion with regard to the legislation of what a "psychologist" is. There is also a considerable difference in the practice of hiring school psychologists. For example, some school systems tend to hire individuals with training only at the Bachelor or diploma level and place them in a position of providing psychological services. In most provinces in Canada, it appears that school psychologists are trained at the Master's level. There may be notable exceptions, however, in some of the provinces where no legislation exists or where the Psychologists' Associations have not established a close liason with the pupil personnel services in the schools.

In the Province of Alberta a situation exists where, in a large city like Calgary, only two psychologists are currently registered as certified psychologists. This situation certainly must be recognized as serious, since school boards must be encouraged to obtain recognized, certifiable, and trained individuals.

Functions of the school psychologist.

School psychologists in Canada usually have training at the MA or PhD level, either in education or in the arts. Many, although not all, would also have a teaching certificate. The school systems have made it a habit in the past not to hire a psychologist unless they have had some experience as a teacher. The school psychologists are often the chief liason between the school and the social agencies, parents, and other interested public groups. They may head a section of professionals who have responsibility for students in a particular geographical area, and in that role coordinate efforts of others to help students. They are usually responsible for individual testing to help determine special class placement for a student and the recognition and diagnosis of problems that may require referral for treatment. They are readily available consultants to the classroom teacher, interpreting the behavior of students and offering suggestions for classroom management.

In many urban and rural centers the school psychologist may be invited to serve on committees which attempt to evaluate the present curriculum. Here they are expected to contribute their knowledge of learning theory and of techniques of measurement and evaluation. A common concern of curriculum committees lies in working out appropriate curricula for pupils of different abilities and/or interests. In many high schools there are, in addition to the standard college preparatory courses, curricula designed for students that will go to a junior college or to university, or directly into vocational training. The school psychologist is often asked to provide suggestions regarding the level at which such students could be taught in view of their abilities, interests, and personality.

Another major task of the school psychologist, especially in rural settings, is to perform group testing. In many cases the school psychologist is often not the one to actually administer the tests. This is usually done by the counselor in the school. However, the school psychologist may be asked to undertake major responsibility for the selection of the testing program by recommending the types of tests to be used and the time at which they should be administered. He/she may also be asked to help interpret the results. Sometimes the school psychologist may be expected to introduce new tests, demonstrating their administration and scoring to a group of school counselors.

Today there is a rapid increase in the number of classes established to handle special educational problems. In many systems there are special classes for children of impaired intelligence or for children with special problems. In most areas in Canada, you would find opportunity classes, speech and hearing classes, low vision classes, emotionally disturbed and neurologically impaired classes, rehabilitation classes, cerebral palsy classes, etc. In the city of Edmonton, with the population of 500,000, one would find over 20 adaptation classes for mildly disturbed children; i.e., one or more special adaptation classes which provide special features including individual cubicles for the seriously disturbed children. In addition, large urban centers would have residential treatment centers for neglected and delinquent boys. School psychologists would often refer cases to these community treatment agencies. Some cities would also have one or two junior and senior high schools particularly designed for vocational training programs or for special academic programs for students with learning problems.

Although the school psychologist would function primarily as a psychometrist in the elementary schools with occasional referrals from junior and senior high schools, there could be other requirements made of them. For example, they may be given the opportunity for counseling. Where trained counselors would be available in the schools, the school psychologist would generally not make a contribution there. However, it is possible for the school psychologist to be involved in individual and group guidance and to help students with personal and emotional problems.

In most areas in Canada the psychologist works under the administrative umbrella called "Pupil Personnel Services", a service similar to that found in the United States. Although Pupil Personnel Services would vary from province to province and sometimes from school to school in the same system, some schools offer a highly organized specialized service. School psychologists would usually be one of many professionals working under the direction of the Director of Pupil Personnel Services. In most school districts the psychologist would become the head of the team, although it would be possible to change the team leader, depending on the nature of the specific cases. For example, it may be more suitable that in certain cases the social worker act as the team leader.

Because of the possibility of overlap of function between team members, it becomes particularly necessary for the school psychologist, the school social worker or visiting teacher, and the remedial reading specialist to establish good communication with each other, so that they neither work at cross purposes nor permit the student's needs to fall unmet between them. Such cooperation seems to be the ordinary, common practice in most school systems today.

Relations between a school psychologist and the consulting psychiatrist depends on the training and the experience each has had. Just as a psychologist can be accused by the guidance counselor of seeing too much pathology, so may the school psychologist criticize many psychiatrists for unfamiliarity with normal children, or with classroom teaching. A school psychologist, because of their academic rather than medical training, has some advantage in approaching educational problems, but this depends on the extent of their knowledge. Where the psychologist and the psychiatrist have had very similar training and experience, the working relationship may be impaired by status disputes. (This has been the case in terms of this author's work as a school psychologist.)

In those schools where psychiatrists are employed, usually as part-time consultants, the school psychologist has a clinically trained person available who can offer a judgement as to the character and severity of the presenting problems. The psychiatrist is usually expected to help the Pupil Personnel Staff in defining the nature of a disturbance, in recommending a remedial plan, in educating the school staff in mental hygiene, and in assisting with psychological therapy. In some of the larger school systems where clinics have been established, the psychiatrist may be actively engaged in individual pupil interviews, or in supervising the clinic staff.

In view of the relatively small number of psychologists hired in a school system, it has been difficult (if not impossible) for the school psychologist to be given enough time to be involved in psychological therapy. Although the school psychologists trained today are capable and experienced in therapy with children, they are currently not being used as therapists in the school systems. Often the school psychologist will consult with the counselors employed in the schools and make suggestions for short-term or long-term interpretive or supportive counseling and therapy. In addition, the school counselor may include the parents as part of the general program of therapy. In cases of adolescent conflict with parents, the school psychologist is often asked to take a therapeutic role. Parents would be invited to meet with the school psychologist at the school, and individual and family therapy sessions would be arranged. This latter service is not that frequent in the rural parts of Canada, but is becoming increasingly popular in the urban centers. In the Province of Alberta, for example, since the Conservative Government began their Learning Disability Fund, school psychologists currently teaching at the universities have acted as consultants, traveling to rural areas and being involved in many of the services that have been previously mentioned as part of the work of a school psychologist.

One Special Educational Services Department (1976) in an urban center in Alberta is headed by a Director, an Assistant Director, and serves 145 special classes and 1,200 Special Education Students. It's structure is given in some detail to illustrate the working relationships.

A. Visiting-Teacher Department (1 Senior Visiting Teacher, 28 Visiting Teachers).

Children with social, emotional, or academic problems which interfere with the child's progress in school may be referred to the Visiting Teacher by the school and/or the home. The Visiting Teacher attempts to help resolve the problem by:

1. Counseling with the child and/or parents on a limited time basis only. Referral to other agencies is made if more counseling appears desirable.

2. Consulting with parents, teachers, other Special Education personnel, psychiatrists, other medical personnel, agencies, etc. in order to obtain the necessary information to help in resolving the problem.

3. Coordinating the plans of action to be taken by the child, the parents, the school, and other personnel involved. Most Visiting Teachers work in the elementary schools, spending approximately one half day per week in each school. Two Visiting Teachers work in the junior and senior high schools.

B. Psychology Department (1 Senior Psychologist, 14 school psychologists).

The Psychology Department provides diagnostic and, when time permits, counseling or remedial services to all schools for children who, because of learning, behavioral or other problems may require special placement, a modified program, remediation, or counseling.

The psychologists then work with school and other Special Education personnel in planning for the children. Referrals are accepted from teachers through principals and directly from parents.

C. Speech Pathology Department (1 Senior Speech Pathologist, 14 Speech Pathologists).

Function: to provide assessment and treatment service for students with speech, language, or hearing problems.

Problems encountered: articulation difficulties, stuttering, delayed language development, voice disorders, symbolic disorders, and hearing losses.

Method: Referrals from principals or parents. Assessment and treatment normally carried out in child's home school. Parents and school staffs are given suggestions for dealing with communicative disorders. Major emphasis on elementary and special education levels.

D. Attendance Department (1 Senior Attendance Officer, 4 Attendance Officers).

Regular school attendance is compulsory under the Alberta School Act, for all children aged 6 to 16 years.

The Attendance Department is concerned with aiding the child, the school, and the parents in keeping children in regular attendance at school.

Since children who have attendance problems often have other related problems, close liason is maintained with other departments in the Division of Special Educational Services, and with other social agencies.

Referrals are accepted from principals or parents.

E. Learning Assistance Center (Supervisor, 9 Clinicians, 21 Tutors).

The Learning Assistance Center specializes in diagnostic and treatment services for children referred to the Center who have severe learning disorders.

Remediation in the reading and mathematics areas is provided for the student at a Central Clinic or at one of five Area Clinics.

The Learning Assistance Center staff of Clinicians and Tutors also works closely with teachers and parents.

An in-service role of training remedial tutors in the areas of reading and mathematics is also a major function.

Criteria for Referral:

1. Children in Year 2 through Year 9.
2. Children with an IQ of 90 or above, as indicated by an individual intelligence test.
3. Children whose reading or arithmetic achievement is one and one half years (or more) below their present level of grade placement.

F. Special Education Department (1 Supervisor, 2 Assistant Supervisors).

The Special Education Department is concerned with providing special facilities, curricula, and specialized instruction for exceptional children who are unable to make adequate progress in the regular classroom.

In assessing the child's needs for special class placement the total resources of the Division of Special Educational Services may be used.

Special Classes are provided for:

1. Mentally Disadvantaged Children.
   a. Trainable Mentally Handicapped (TMH)
   b. Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH)
2. Physically Handicapped Children including those who are home confined or hospitalized
3. Sensory Handicapped Children
   a. Hearing-Handicapped
   b. Visually Impaired
   c. Blind
4. Learning Disabled Children
   a. Learning Disability "N" (Neurological)
   b. Learning Disability "E" (Emotional)
   c. Observation ("O") classes
   d. Adaptation Classes for children with adjustment problems
   e. Margaret House for severely disturbed children
5. Institutions
   a. William Roper Hull Home
   b. Wood's Christian Homes
   c. Alberta Children's Hospital
   d. City of Calgary Detention Centre

G. Guidance Department (1 Supervisor; 15 full-time & 72 parttime Junior High Counselors; 52 full-time & 6 parttime Senior High Counselors).

Guidance services are presently provided by Secondary school counselors in grades 7 - 12. Guidance helps the students succeed academically by helping them recognize their strengths and limitations. It also helps them identify their interests, aptitudes, achievements, and the careers they can pursue through the process of decision making.

Guidance counselors also provide group testing services and work with parents by discussing their child's educational plans or problems.

Training of School Psychologists

Although most Canadian universities offer a training program for school psychologists, there are some notable exceptions. Today most of the school psychologists trained at the PhD level come from either the University of Toronto, the Ontario Instutute for Studies in Education, or the University of Alberta. Since the writer is more familiar with the Alberta program, it could well serve as a general model for the kind of training that school psychologists would engage in.

At the University of Alberta the school psychology program is combined with the school counseling program. All Master's and PhD candidates, regardless of specialization, participate in a supervised practicum with placement in schools, clinics, and agency settings. However, at the PhD level there is greater flexibility in the nature of the courses and in the practicum.

Programs are tailored to the interests and professional goals of the students. School psychologists can gain counselor training in theory and practice and counselors can gain training in individual diagnosis, remediation, and psychotherapy.

A candidate for the Master's degree must spend at least one academic year in study and research in residence at the university. At the PhD level there is a two year residency requirement. Counselors and school psychologists have the additional requirement of course work in specialized disciplines such as learning theory, developmental theory, measurement, and special education. Within the professional specialties are course offerings in the areas of group assessment, projective testing, vocational counseling, consulting in schools, family counseling, exceptional children, learning disabilities, and so on. Students can select the areas most suited to their preferred professional goals. Certification of a psychologist is possible with a minimum requirement of a Master's Degree in Psychology or Educational Psychology in all provinces of Canada except Manitoba. All school psychologists have the Master's degree as a minimum requirement, although it is possible for some school systems to hire school psychologists without this degree. Technically, however, these individuals without the Master's degree would not be eligible for certification as a psychologist. In some instances, employing agencies or school systems might require additional course work or supervised practicum experience before recognizing a school psychologist as being sufficiently prepared to work independently.

In response to community needs and out of committment to prevention as an important mode of psychological intervention, the Departments of Educational Psychology have taken a particular interest in the preparation of counselors and school psychologists at the elementary school level. Particular specializations are offered in working with learning disabled children, mentally retarded children, and other special exceptionalities. Diagnosis, program planning, remediation, and parent counseling would be part of this specialization.

The overall aim of the school psychology training program at the universities is to provide communities and school agencies with practitioners who possess demonstrated ability to integrate theoretical and practical skills in response to a variety of client needs emerging from contemporary life situations (Janzen, 1976).

The Future of the School Psychologist: Proposed Guidelines

Although it is very difficult to project into the future for a country as large and diverse as Canada, it is becoming increasingly more clear in the literature that the school psychologists must not view licensure or certification as being adequate in terms of providing competent professional service to the schools or other community agencies. At best, the laws governing the practice of psychology in the various provinces set minimum standards, based almost entirely upon the successful completion of a course of study in which the major subject matter is "psychological in nature". As psychologists who were appointed to provincial boards of examiners quickly discovered, such standards, while essential, were not adequate to the task of judging competence, and the issue of competence and how to judge it and how to maintain it, has become the focus of many heated discussions. One would predict, therefore, that school psychologists would have need for continuing education to upgrade their professional skills.

The problem of continuing education still remains to be solved and is a matter of concern to us in Canada. Psychologists most often are employed by an institution or agency and they move from one locality to another as they change employers or job responsibilities. This nomadic professional life makes it very difficult to request that the school psychologist maintain a continuing education program. While large urban areas have disproportionately large numbers of school psychologists, many rural areas do not even have one. They are often professionally isolated, not only by the scarcity of other school psychologists or other professionals in the behavioral and health sciences in the immediate vicinity, but also by agency reluctance to support attendance at professional-level workshops, seminars, or other meetings. Therefore, one of the major events occurring in the future would be a massive program of continuing education for those school psychologists currently working in the field.

A second future outlook for school psychologists would include the extension of their services to other mental health areas. For example, school psychologists could be involved in home making services, in providing consultation in homes for the aged, in providing informal education for children and adults in institutional care, in providing family and individual counseling at day-care and foster home agencies, and in providing consultation for protection services for children. Extension of services in rural areas would include the policy of increasing the number of school psychologists currently being employed in these areas. However, in the urban centers the extension of services into the mental health field is more of a likelihood in the next 10 years.

It is becoming increasingly more popular for psychologists to move into private practice. One would predict that school psychologists would also be involved in a private practice setting. Currently school systems have a policy that their psychologists are not allowed to work outside of their school agency setting. This has restricted the community work of these school psychologists in areas where they could be particularly effective. School psychologists have the potential of offering valuable services to parent groups, community agencies, and public service agencies (Parker, 1975).

In most of the provinces of Canada the school psychologist's work is primarily restricted to elementary and junior high schools. Even at the junior high school level, the involvement is minimal. One would see a trend toward increasing psychological services at the senior high school level. At the present time some university professors, currently serving as trainers in school psychology, function as consultants to large rural centers in the high school areas. School psychologists will, in the future, be used to train high school teachers as therapists, to help them to become more professional, and to give them a wider variety of strategies in working with students.

Perhaps the major focus of the future for school psychologists should be in the area of curriculum development. The attitude in some Canadian cities today is that our curriculums are outdated. Our schools have not kept up with the changing pace of our society. School psychologists can make a valuable contribution in planning curricula that would foster the personal, social, emotional, physical, and mental growth of the individual. Aside from involving the psychologist as a curriculum builder, many are now moving into administrative positions where they can influence government officials for action in school settings. They must become more active in their local professional organizations, coordinating their field work with the interests of the professional organizations. Psychology as an applied profession is just beginning to take shape in Canada. Within 10 years it will be viewed as a professional discipline much like medicine, law, or dentistry. School psychologists must take major responsibility for upgrading their standards and skills and become involved in the professional development of themselves and of the team of which they are a part.

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PSYCHOLOGY IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF FRENCH QUEBÉC

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A Peculiar Situation

Fundamentals of modern psychology are similar everywhere but applications in the practice of psychology may present as many differences and varieties as can be observed in the total characteristics of the personality. French Quebéc is a large geographical spot in the whole of Canada and North America presenting important differences in language and culture which may seem unwanted, but are still a part of reality. The structure of the educational system in Quebéc has been reformed over the last 15 years to conform to the general standards of education in North America.

Psychology is quite a newcomer in this educational system, making its appearance in 1960 when a simple amendment to a bylaw made possible the introduction into the schools of different specialists such as social workers, guidance counselors, and psychologists. All of these specialists were welcomed into the schools and expectations were high. School was no longer an exclusive area for educators. It became open to other professionals who served in a complementary role to that of the teachers. The presence of these specialists in the educational system was expected to provide new answers to the school, the teachers, and the pupils. All were involved in the reform of the educational system, particularly the teacher. The other professionals were collaborating in their area of specific professional competence.

Psychology in the School and the School Psychologist

The psychologists working in the schools of the French speaking educational system of the Province of Quebéc were characterized by their exclusive training in psychology; they had not been trained as teachers and most of the time, had not had experience in teaching. Psychologists generally have graduated from the Departments of Psychology of the different universities, which are quite distinct from the Departments of Education. They came into the school system in 1960 and brought with them the clinical model which was commonly in practice at that time.

Psychologists, as did other professionals working in the schools, had to deal with high expectations from the education profession. "Love at first sight" and a "honeymoon" were followed by a confrontation of the difficult problems of trying to reform and renovate the structure and content of the educational system. Before they could specify what it was that needed to be changed, however, the psychologists and other professionals had to learn to work with a system where major innovations take the place of slower evolutionary change.

How have psychologists fared through these changes? In a quite conservative way, as usual! From the beginning of the renovation of the educational system, they have arrived in the schools with the clinical approach, the only one they were familiar with, and they applied this approach to the problems they came in contact with in the schools.

Test administration, interviews, consultation, diagnosis, evaluation, counseling, and intervention were all accomplished by the psychologist with a characteristically clinical approach. In this initial period, this approach filled the needs of the school to understand the problems of individual pupils. It was a limited view of psychological principles being applied to the individual who had problems, without being aware of the larger gestalt of the role in which the psychologist in the school was involved. This limited viewpoint on the part of the psychologist was not able to meet the expectations of the educational milieu; the psychologists in the school had to look for new techniques to complement the traditional way of considering psychological practice which had come from the clinical approach.

To focus only on the individual problem, as most psychologists are trained to do, is too limited a perspective. By adopting such a service model, school psychologists see their action defined by other people in authority in the school who tell them which problems to work on. School psychologists have been inclined, almost exclusively, to restrict their activities to abnormal behavior and to different aspects of the adjustment process. They had to become more innovative and try to assess the psychological needs in the school system in which they could play their unique role. This role is characterized by a deeper understanding of the psychological aspects of the school itself.

Toward a Broader Perspective

The clinical model centered most of its services on the select population of the school; i.e., the problem child who had been referred to the psychologist by the school authority, the teacher, or the principal.

A further step forward in the role of the psychologist in the schools has been brought about by a more appropriate use of their training in child development and learning. Traditionally, the psychologist is quite expertly trained in these topics which provide a better understanding of the conditions that enhance or hamper the learning process. Thus, psychologists began focusing their efforts on the child's interaction with the educative process by coming into the classroom to actually observe the problems where they are occurring. They are studying the classroom as a whole where specific behaviors of children and their interaction with peers and with the teacher can be observed. These observations provide objective data for an inner understanding of the classroom setting and serve to implement remediation strategies with the teacher and to bring about necessary changes.

In coming to the classroom for systematic observation of the pupil's behavior in a specific learning situation, the psychologist is in a better position to determine more clearly the stage of development and the environmental circumstances which affect the child. On the basis of their evaluation, the psychologist then proceeds to design interventions which will enhance the pupil's learning and behavior. The prescription of learning and remediation procedures and the use of behavior modification techniques are already common procedures in the schools.

But this second approach, although it is a forward step in the strategy formulation of the school psychologist, is still a limited perspective. It is true that the psychologist is more nearly answering the school's needs by considering the psychological aspects of the learning and behavior within the context of the school situation. To do this, psychologists have had to leave their professional office to enter the classroom and to work more closely with the school staff. Better results are achieved by the mutual efforts of educators and psychologists, but this is still a limited approach where environment and system components and their interrelations are not considered. In general, psychologists of the educational system of the Province of Quebéc have not yet gone beyond this psycho-educational approach. On the whole, they are currently working at the implementation of this second level of psychological practice.

A further step would be to adopt the more recent eco-systemic model in school psychology. Through this model, not only the individual problem with its learning components is considered, but an emphasis is also placed on an understanding of the relationships between the system, the school, and the environment. It is the interaction of the person and the content that is significant (see Suggested Readings at end of chapter).

Whereas the clinical and psycho-educational models are essentially analytical, the systemic model presents a more wholistic approach. The situation is considered as a whole; relations between the parts are looked for before the parts are analyzed. In the systemic approach, human behavior is viewed in its dynamic relations with the system in which the individual is intimately connected: e.g., the family, the school, and the environment. Analysis of the components occurs when relations between individuals and their environment have been established. The systemic approach is more complementary than it is opposed to the analytical models; only the strategy is reversed. The situation as a whole is considered before the analysis of the components.

In the school system, the school psychologist has traditionally been interested in the evaluation of individual differences, intervention, and consultation. Now the school psychologists must put an emphasis on the process of interaction between the institutions, groups, and individuals rather than solely on the characteristics of the individual. Consideration of the total environment provides different inputs to different persons. This is why the interaction of person and environment is so significant and why it completes the data obtained in the analysis of the factors seen in the individual's behavior.

De Meuron and Auerswald (1969) have recommended that professional activity should not only be directed toward diagnosing and treating the individual, but in addition, should concentrate upon understanding and changing the relationships which exist between the troubled child and the ecological systems in which they are functioning. They feel that because many school psychologists do not pay enough attention to the influence of the system and the environment, their efforts produce only limited results. Psychologists in the schools should become aware of the importance of the eco-systemic approach as being able to give a more complete perspective in dealing with the problems of the educational environment.

Present and Future of School Psychology

The present status of school psychology in the educational system of the Province of Quebéc is characterized by a process of trying to cope with the rapid changes coming about because of the renovation of the educational system. Depending on the training and the experience of the school psychologist, professional practice may extend from merely assessing the cognitive and affective abilities of the child, on through recommending intervention programs to facilitate the learning process. Mainstreaming of exceptional children into the regular classroom is a recent task assigned to the psychologist in the school. The developmental task analysis is used to suggest or design interventions which enhance the pupil's learning. Behavior modification techniques are introduced in the classroom as an aid to solving individual or group problems under the supervision of the school psychologist working with the teacher.

These different approaches and techniques are available through the psychologist in the schools, in an effort to answer the needs of the educational system. If they are to be more effective, psychologists must be innovative in order to produce the kind of psychological services that a changing society demands.

The future of psychology in the school requires a broader perspective than the one which is simply centered on individual behavior and on problem solving in the learning process. The level of effectiveness under this model is not high enough because many failures are the result of the organizational factors within the school which seriously impede the effectiveness of the psychological interventions.

In the future, psychologists in the school should focus more on the relationships between the pupil, the teacher, the school authority, and societal requirements as a complex system of interactions which are in a process of constant change. They should become aware of the importance of ecology in the school and should seek to increase their ability to analyze the systems within the school organization.

School psychology offers an exciting challenge to move away from a predominantly diagnostic role into a new model which will embrace the traditional role but which will be complimented by its ability to deal with the forces which are brought about by the environment and organizational systems.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN NEW ZEALAND

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Introduction: New Zealand

To understand where school psychology fits into the education system in this country, it is necessary to know a little of the country and its people.

New Zealand has a land area of about the same size as the British Isles but a total population of just over three million people. The land area, long and narrow for the most part, is divided into two main islands, the North Island and the South Island. These two islands extend from the sub-tropical latitudes in the north to a cool temperature in the south.

When European settlers first began to arrive in New Zealand about 150 years ago, mainly from the British Isles, the land was peopled by Maoris. The population of this indigenous people fluctuated greatly during the first 100 years of European settlement, but has now steadied with Maoris and their descendents (much intermarried with Europeans) making up somewhere over 10% of the total population today. The Maori people have a strong feeling for their cultural heritage; this has seen a marked upsurge in recent years. Maoris and other Polynesian groups, who have come in increasing numbers to New Zealand from the South West Pacific in recent years, are fully integrated throughout the education system.

In the last decade there have been two quite marked population movements in New Zealand, a shift from rural to urban centers and a drift from south to north, and both have posed problems for the educational system. Maoris and Polynesians are distributed throughout all parts of New Zealand but 70% are to be found in the northern half of the North Island; about 70% of this whole group are also urban dwellers. In the north, Auckland, the largest city in New Zealand and having a population which is estimated soon to reach the million mark, has the greatest density of Maori and Polynesian residents of any New Zealand city. It is claimed to be the largest Polynesian city in the Pacific.

To summarize the place and its people: nearly 90% of the present population are descendents from the original settlers from the British Isles; 10% are Maoris, Polynesians, and intermarried people from all sources; 80% of all people are living in urban centres, and more than half of the total population lives in the northern half of the North Island.

One final point, just to put New Zealand on the map: New Zealand is not part of Australia. Our Australian cousins are a thousand miles distant across a stormy patch of sea. We are rather touchy about this. New Zealand is an independent, self-governing dominion, a one-time Colony, but now a member of the British Commonwealth, maintaining strong, mainly sentimental and cultural ties with Britain, and owing much to Britain for our present system of government, our legal system, and our educational system.

Education System in New Zealand

To see the school Psychological Service as it now exists in New Zealand in perspective, it is necessary to have some awareness of the total New Zealand education system. Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 6 and 15 years. By far the great majority start school at 5 years. Before the age of 5, there are preschool facilities which may take children from 2 1/2 or 3 years of age. Preschool education is in the hands of local, voluntary associations or committees and now reaches a little over 50% of the total child population, both rural and urban, between the ages of 2 1/2 and 5 years. It is subsidised by central Government funds. Education in New Zealand, by Statute of 1877, became compulsory for all, and free and secular for all who entered the system thus provided by the state. A small percentage (about 10%) of schools, church or privately funded, has always stood apart from the state system though in recent years these schools have successfully petitioned the central government for financial subsidies to assist them with their operating costs.

New Zealand's education system is frequently described as highly centralised. In a sense this is true. The Department of Education, a

Department of State under the control of the Minister of Education, has ultimate control of all expenditures on public primary (elementary) and postprimary (secondary) education. Funds for these purposes are provided by the central Government through the Department of Education. At the same time local control of schools is quite real. For this purpose, New Zealand is broadly divided into 10 Education Board districts; actual budgeting and day-by-day running is in the hands of the 10 Education Boards for primary, intermediate, and some rural secondary schools. At the same time, boards of governors or boards of managers, or secondary school councils (for a group of adjacent secondary schools) administer another group of secondary schools and technical institutes at the local level.

The Psychological Service is one of the guidance and support services which is provided by the Department of Education on a national basis. School psychologists, however, work very much at the local level to provide service to the whole range of educational and community facilities which roughly correspond with the 10 education board districts already mentioned. For administrative purposes, psychologists at the district level are under the control of local administrative and professional officers of the Central Department of Education. "Work in collaboration with" would be a better way to describe this relationship. At the national level their professional head is the Chief Psychologist with a small staff (two) who is based in the Head Office of the Department. This office gives professional leadership to the Service, negotiates within the Department of Education both for recognition of the place of the service and its development in education, directly recruits psychologists to work in education, supervises their preservice training, assigns them to appropriate Psychological Service Centres, etc.

A shaky start with a Psychological Service proper (but at least a start) was made in 1946. This year marked the completion of training of two graduates who had gone through a two-year professional and practical course which equipped them to work as educational psychologists in what was first known as the "psychological division." The New Zealand Education Department's Psychological Service was born. The first

Supervisor of Psychological Services was appointed in 1948 and two centres were opened in that year. A third came in 1952 and, within the next two years, three more centres were opened. From their origin, embedded in the fabric of special education, school psychologists, or, as they are known in New Zealand, educational psychologists, have had a strong orientation to schools and particularly to special educational facilities for atypical children in the whole school system.

Between 1950 and 1960 there was a gradual expansion of the Psychological Service, as it had come to be known. The first substantial growth spurt, however, came in 1960 with the establishment of a high level training course for psychologists at one of the universities. Each year experienced teachers, who held an MA in education or psychology, were awarded a bursary by the Education Department to undertake full-time university studies in relevant subjects for one year. This was followed by a second year of on-the-job training in a psychological service centre. On successful completion of this intensive postgraduate two-year course (which was in addition to their original Master's programme), these students were awarded a Diploma in Educational Psychology by the University.

By 1964, when trained psychologists had begun to swell the ranks of the service, it became possible to open new psychological service centres in some of the small cities of New Zealand. Whereas in 1954 there had been only five centres (all in the larger cities) with five fully qualified psychologists and four "organisers of special classes" (direct descendents of the original "supervisors of special classes" and the founding fathers [and mothers] of the present day service) by 1964 there were 17 centres with 37 psychologists and eight organisers. Today (1976) the service numbers 118, comprised of 79 qualified psychologists, 11 assistant psychologists, and 28 organisers. In addition, there are eight students in their second year of training.

Organisers of special classes have remained an integral part of the Psychological Service. They have traditionally been recruited from the ranks of first degree, qualified teachers who have worked with backward and intellectually handicapped children. Their functions have widened over the years; however, their primary function has remained: identifying backward and intellectually handicapped children and advising the teachers of these children about their special needs for teaching, special placement,and guidance.

Training

The year 1976 marks the introduction of a significantly increased training programme for psychologists to work in the education service. Between 1960 and 1975 the number of places for training offered by the Education Department to the one university providing a training course specifically to train educational psychologists was gradually increased from five a year to nine a year. Nine was set as an ideal maximum for the kind of training course provided. The quota offered was not always filled in any one year for a variety of reasons. One important reason was that the qualification requirements set were high.

In New Zealand a Master's degree normally requires five years of study. Those with an MA can earn teacher certification after a further two years, one in training and one in teaching. For a nongraduate teacher trainee, however, a course of three years in teacher training and one year of teaching practice is required. All of this must take place before going before a panel (a searching interview) to be selected for the award of a studentship to study and work for a further two years to earn a postgraduate diploma. Preselection training could take up to 10 years. Little wonder that some aspiring school psychologists quailed at the thought. Yet the studentship is a good one. It pays the student for full-time university study for a year, followed by carefully supervised on-the-job training for a second year on full teacher's salary. The studentship is open to applicants of both sexes from any part of New Zealand; it also provided for the payment of removal expenses for a person required to move to a university centre.

From 1976 this type of course will be offered for the first time at a second university and the Government has approved an increase by threefold in the number of studentships that may be offered by the Education Department. A further important change has been introduced: selected, trained teachers who hold a first degree in education or psychology, which in New Zealand universities normally takes three years of full-time study, have been offered a two year study award to be followed by a practical year as in the original course. At the end of this three year training programme, these people will qualify with a Master's degree and a postgraduate diploma in educational psychology. Thus it is that this year 22 future psychologists, 16 with higher entry qualifications on the shorter course and six with lower qualifications on the extended course, have entered on their first year of training.

Mention has been made of the fact that studentships to train for work in educational psychology in New Zealand are available to both men and women. In the early developing years of the Service in New Zealand, the field seemed like a male preserve. This has changed markedly in the past 10 years. Women receive equal pay with men and have done so since the Psychological Service came into being. In the last five years, approximately two women to every man have been offering themselves for training. However, the distribution of men and women in the Service today is still three to one in favour of men. At the close of International Women's Year and the beginning of 1976, of the 29 psychologists at different levels of training, 16 were women and 13 were men. Though women might seem to be in the ascent, their short-term retention rate in the Service is, for obvious reasons, not as high as for men. There is an expectation, however, that at least some of these women, after marriage, will rejoin the Service. The ideal is believed to be something approaching an even balance of the sexes.

Perhaps some comment should be made on the policy of adherence to recruiting psychologists in New Zealand from the ranks of trained teachers. This had its origins with the introduction of special education and guidance in this country. Teaching experience, not necessarily extensive, has been held to be desirable for an educational psychologist on the grounds that it assists them in their relationships with children and teachers, and provides them with a better awareness and understanding of the education system in which the bulk of their work will be done. This policy has generally applied since 1960, but it has never been applied with absolute rigidity. When exceptions have been made in selection from the ranks of non-teachers, the applicant must meet the additional qualification of having had "some significant relevant experience".

In 1968 the Summerfield Report (Report of the Working Party on Psychologists in Education Services, HMSO 1968) was published. When this report noted, among its findings, that teaching experience for educational psychologists, though certainly helpful, was by no means regarded as essential, we were somewhat shaken in our conviction, but only slightly. The strongest pressures to abandon this principle have come from the universities and from the New Zealand Psychological Society, who, one might suspect, are chiefly motivated by a desire for better professional career openings for their graduate psychology students and members, who do not happen also to be trained teachers.

Why has New Zealand held so fast to the principle that educational psychologists should be so strongly oriented, even to the point of selecting for training 9 out of 10 from the ranks of trained teachers? The answer, it is believed, is simple: it is in the schools at all levels (from kindergarten to upper secondary) and in special institutions which have a primary concern for the education and welfare of young people, that the school or educational psychologist can be most effective.

The Role of the Educational Psychologist

In New Zealand this role has never been static. An evolutionary pattern has been followed, as in the education systems of most developed countries. The work of psychologists could, in its infancy, have been briefly described as "ascertainment" and "placement recommendation". For a period in the 1950's to mid-1960's psychologists, thin on the ground and in great demand by the schools, were in grave danger of becoming psychometricians, i.e., test, report, and on to the next case on the long waiting list.

In 1970 the role of psychologists working with the Department of Education was stated as being that of a consultant who: examines children on request; reports as fully as possible on their educational, emotional, and social needs; and advises teachers, parents, and others responsible for the care of children, on ways to help them. In carrying out these examinations psychologists might work in their own centres, in schools, and in Child Health Clinics, which at that time were administered by the Health Department. Children were referred to psychologists by teachers, parents, child welfare officers (now called social welfare officers), vocational guidance officers, doctors, and by a number of other community services which were concerned with the welfare of children.

Today all of these statements still hold, with some minor variations because of administrative changes; i.e., Child Health Clinics, for example, are now administered by regional Hospital Boards. However, to the discription of duties for the earlier period would have to be added a list of new activities:

1. Becoming involved in a wide variety of community services;
2. Providing counselling and therapy, both individual and group;
3. Giving direct guidance to teachers and parents concerning the application of learning theory for both individuals and groups;
4. Providing a much greater thrust in two directions: preventive work with preschool children and work in secondary schools with young people up to late adolescence.

The extension of special educational provision for handicapped and atypical children in all parts of New Zealand has been closely associated with the growth of the Psychological Service. Examination by a psychologist is one of the requirements for admission of children to: special classes for backward children, special schools for intellectually handicapped children, schools for the physically handicapped, classes for the partially sighted, residential schools and classes for the deaf, remedial reading clinics, special preschool (under 5 years) groups, assessment classes, experience classes at the secondary level, adjustment classes, and residential schools for the maladjusted. The old "ascertainment" role is still there, but psychological examination for admission to these classes and schools has a much more important function. It is one of the ways of determining more precisely the individual educational needs of these children [illegible] passing this information on to those who will be actively working with them

A long range objective of the Psychological Service is to promote in the schools and in the community, conditions which favour the healthy development of all children from preschool to late adolesence. It seeks to achieve this aim by disseminating the principles of mental health among teachers and parents and even more widely in the community. Educational psychologists take an active part in in-service training courses for teachers, social workers, marriage counsellors, guidance counsellors (who work in secondary schools), playcentre supervisors, kindergarten directors, and other child care workers. They participate in Parent-Teacher and Home and School Association discussion groups and provide a counselling service to parents. Their work with individual children, the traditional role, is now increasingly being expanded as psychologists are called upon more and more to:

1. Conduct surveys in schools;
2. Advise teachers on the setting up of special programmes for the gifted, for slow learners, for the socially disadvantaged;
3. Participate in pilot projects in guidance or in integration;
4. Advise on the use and interpretation of standardised tests by teachers;
5. Serve as members of education board advisory committees which are concerned with the management of a wide variety of special educational facilities including special schools or classes in each education board district;
6. Serve in their own time on the committees of voluntary organisations such as the Crippled Children Society, the Society for the Intellectually Handicapped and Community Sheltered Workshops.

The tendency is for their work and involvement with voluntary committees to increase as the community expectations grow. It is clear that there is a strong demand for the services of psychologists from a much wider consumer group and that these demands are increasing.

Conditions of Service

In 1976 New Zealand has a total primary and secondary school enrollment in the vicinity of 750,000 pupils from the age of 5 years upwards. However when the larger target age group, from birth to about 17 years, is estimated, the Psychological Service is endeavouring to provide a service for about one million young people. Counting all members of the Service as it is presently staffed and considering the total potential client population, this allows for a ratio of approximately 1:8,000. Since staffing varies in different parts of the country, however, in some areas the ratio is as high as 1:13,000; in others it drops to as low as 1:5,000.

Psychologists and organisers have a special salary scale within the ranges paid to primary and secondary teachers in the state education service. This scale takes cognisance of special qualifications required and attempts to equalise their salary with similarly qualified and experienced teachers in the general teaching sector and, at the same time, to recognise the special responsibilities carried out by psychologists. In common with the general instability and inflationary trends current in most western economies, psychologists in our country are not always happily placed in terms of relativity and salary recognition in the New Zealand Education Service.

Appointments and promotions in the Psychological Service are made or gained under conditions very similar to those in operation for teachers The main difference is that for psychologists, who are members of a national service, consideration of national needs may sometimes take precedence over local district needs. Psychologists do not enjoy the same working or holiday conditions as do teachers in New Zealand. They are expected to work the same hours as other Departmental officers (approximately a 40 hour week) and have an annual leave entitlement on the same scale; i.e., 25 working days a year in addition to the statutory holidays. At present there is no provision for sabbatical, study, or refresher leave but negotiations are taking place to have these possibilities considered for inclusion in the conditions of service. Educational psychologists here are a very mobile group. When they are working away from their normal base, they are paid scale daily living allowances and mileage (now kilometre) allowances for the use of their own cars in travel. This is done at the same rates as Public Servants of comparable status who are required to travel. Once a psychologist advances to a position at a higher grade, they are paid an adequate allowance to cover the costs incurred in moving their household, if that is necessary.

The Future of the Psychological Service

Reference has already been made to the emergence of a Service which has its roots firmly established in the development of special education. In fact, the two have advanced together. However, the important role of psychologists working in what is popularly called the "mainstream of education" must not be overlooked. The Psychological Service in New Zealand probably owes about an equal debt to similar services in both Britain and America, from which its approach to service and present operational pattern has evolved. Unlike some States in America, the New Zealand Service has always maintained strong and direct links with the primary (elementary) school system. Unlike an early emergent pattern in Britain, the Service made no heavy investment in the evolvement of child guidance clinics with their strong medical orientation. Medically oriented Child Health Clinics operate on a relatively limited scale in this country, but even though they are supported by work from educational psychologists, they have very properly retained their emphasis on physical health.

It is considered that the New Zealand Service has evolved and is continuing to evolve, in finding ways best suited to serve its primary consumers and target clientele; i.e., the children (especially the younger children) in the school system. The Psychological Service will continue to perform traditional roles of assessment and identification of special needs, which some could call "first aid functions". However, it aims to develop a much more positive role, that of prevention and community mental health focussed through school systems.

To this end it is hoped that the Service can continue to recruit, train, and employ educational psychologists on a scale sufficient to give a ratio of one psychologist to every 6,000 of the country's population of children and youth. This will require the provision of additional training for a number of the present members of the Service, especially the organisers of special classes, who have a special role in guiding teachers and their pupils in the mildly mentally retarded and intellectually handicapped sector. Organisers are to be trained to work as fully qualified psychologists. The quid pro quo in this is that the present training for psychologists will have to be expanded to cover the special area hitherto dealt with by organisers. The aim is a unified service with a common (but not uniform) pattern of basic training for all.

The next objective is to introduce at least one further special training course at another university. When this training objective is reached and as the service builds up to around 150 fully trained psychologists (that is, double the present number), sights are to be set on a two-pronged objective. The first one is to establish Service centres in local communities such as small towns of about 20,000 population, to serve not only the community but also its surrounding rural area. The second objective is to decentralise some of the bigger centres in large metropolitan areas so that a Service Centre and its group of trained psychologists, averaging from three to five at a centre, will give service to a much smaller area and population. In this way a local team of psychologists will become closely identified with all of the members of the community they serve. This would include the preschool facilities, the primary and secondary schools in the area, the parents, and also all the related voluntary and statutory organisations; i.e., the local hospitals, family doctors, district welfare officers, and so on, that go to make up a local community. This process of decentralisation will, it is hoped, further the objectives of greater community involvement so that preventive work can be undertaken where it is likely to be most effective.

It is planned that the processes of initiating new training programmes to increase the number of psychologists and of decentralisation will be paralleled by two other main thrusts. Traditionally, the interventions of the educational psychologist in New Zealand have been primarily directed at the early elementary school age group, with both the mean and the mode group being 7 to 9 years of age. Our goal is to increase the emphasis at either end of the age continuum with a special, new emphasis on the 3-6 age group and another with the 12 years and upwards group, which might be slightly less strong.

Finally, within the next year or two the Service sets itself an objective to devise and put into operation a new career structure for its members. Too frequently the Service is losing some of its most able people to better career opportunities; to administration and to lectureships at Teacher's Colleges and Universities. Dedicated and capable psychologists must be able to find a promotional structure within the Service which will give them job satisfaction. For some, complete job satisfaction includes career rewards.

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EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN AUSTRALIA

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Historical Origins

While Australian psychology is highly derivative, based largely upon British and North American models, the place of psychology and the structure and delivery of psychological services in Australia present some unique features. Educational psychology exemplifies these features.

As in most western countries, the development of Australian psychological services has run parallel with the development of universal and public education. Both seem to have arisen from enlightened 19th Century views of man and their relationships with the continuing industrial revolution. While they had their origins in the belief that factory hands, for example, would be more useful if they could read, write, and figure, the notion grew that education would improve human nature both practically and morally and that therefore those concerned with higher education had an obligation to further the cause of education for the masses.

Higher education in Australia began only in the 1850's, associated with the establishment of the University of Sydney. To understand how Australian education systems are organised it is necessary to know that much Australian organisation and government is carried out by the six separate states. In addition to the states there are a number of territories and islands, partly administered by the Australian federal government, partly responsible for their own affairs. In the early part of the 20th Century, the state of New South Wales led the way in setting up a public and universal education system, under an enterprising state director of education, Peter Board. Francis Anderson, professor of Philosophy at the University of Sydney, supported and encouraged Board in his work. Before World War I, Anderson gave three public lectures whose titles still serve as rallying cries: "Train the teachers", "Trust the teachers", "Pay the teachers" (O'Neil, in press).

While there are differences in administrative detail between the education systems of the various states, there are more similarities. The state education departments determine policy and the hiring and employment of teachers. Until very recently the states also controlled primary teacher training; the teachers' colleges have now become administratively independent but are still developing intellectual and vocational independence. Tuition and service in schools administered by state education departments are free; children are expected to attend school between the ages of 5 or 6 and 15 or 16. Beside the state (public) education systems, other systems are also maintained, partly by quite large government grants: (1) Roman Catholic parish schools, and (2) private or independent schools, usually with religious affiliations (see Table 1).

Table 1

Rates of Per Capita Grants Paid by the Australian Government to Independent (non-Government) Schools, 1970-73 ($A)

	1970	1971	1972	1973
Primary Students	35	35	50	62
Secondary Students	50	50	68	104

Based on tables from: Official Year Book of Australia, No. 59. Canberra: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1973.

Both parish and private schools require fees for tuition and service. The fees in the case of the parish schools, however, are little more than a token (although that is changing in the present difficult economic situation), while fees for eminent private schools are very substantial indeed. Just over 80% of Australian children attend state schools, about 10% attend Roman Catholic parish schools, and the remainder attend independent schools (Hall, in press). Table 2 shows the enrollment by states as of 1972.

Psychological services are provided to state schools by the state education departments which also make limited services available to parish and independent schools. Usually independent schools employ psychologists in private practice under contract; occasional services are given by federal government psychologists. In some cases an independent school system may use psychological services developed by the religious body with which the school is affiliated, but such arrangements are exceptional. Across the continent, the substantial psychological services to schools are those developed and maintained by state education departments.

Table 2

Government and Non-government Schools in Australia: Enrollments, 1972

States and Territories	Government Schools	Non-govt. Schools	Totals
New South Wales	779,854	221,400	1,001,254
Victoria	602,614	192,155	794,769
Queensland	306,570	91,012	397,582
South Australia	232,812	37,689	270,501
Western Australia	183,539	42,298	225,837
Tasmania	78,212	13,791	92,003
Australian Capital Territory	28,541	10,589	39,130
Northern Territory	16,799	3,076	19,875
Totals	2,228,941	612,010	2,840,951

Based on tables from: Official Year Book of Australia, No. 59. Canberra: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1973.

These quite elaborate provisions had modest beginnings. Educational psychology services to schools, children, and teachers began with the provision of special schools. Some means was needed by which children who were regarded as unsuitable for ordinary schools might be identified and removed to a milieu more advantageous to them, and where they were no longer an embarrassment to the teachers. Stanley Porteus taught in one special school in Melbourne during World War I; Gilbert Phillips taught in another such school in Sydney, where he developed an early Australian adaptation of the Binet Test (O'Neil, in press). Henry Parker was appointed as "Psychologist" in the Tasmanian Education Department in 1922, the first such appointment. In 1924 Constance Davey received a similar appointment in South Australia. The mental test movement was quite well developed, even before 1925, although the delivery of services was tempered by clinical influence. As it had done in the establishment of public education, New South Wales led the country in the development of systematic school psychological services.

The Guidance Movement

In the mid-1930's, a group of psychologists under Harold Wyndham was appointed to evolve and carry out an elaborate program of testing, advice, and placement with the object of placing each child in the educational or custodial institution which was considered most suitable for it. This program owed much less to clinical influences than to the theories of abilities stemming from Spearman and Terman. It included ability streaming in each school for the general run of children as well as special arrangements for atypical children: the very bright, the retarded, the handicapped, and for those who did not meet school expectations. World War II interrupted development of educational psychology as it did other human services, but after the war systematic development and expansion occurred in each state like that in New South Wales. The procedures were described as Counseling and Guidance, and in most states the persons who carried them out were (and still are) entitled "Counsellors" or "Guidance Officers" rather than "Psychologists", a practice which has made it difficult for the public to get a clear idea of what educational psychologists do. That the profession of psychology remains a mystery for most Australians is not surprising (Keats, 1974).

The testing movement had a great influence on educational psychology in Australia from about 1915 to at least the late 1960's. The procedures which developed from the testing movement emphasised individual differences between children, encouraged the development of specialised forms of education, and gave a spur to research on achievements and their correlates. Ironically these positive aspects produced results which led to a great deal of negative feeling about selection and placement programs. The individual differences in test performance correlated positively with individual differences in achievements, and also with certain correlates of achievement which were unacceptable to an egalitarian culture such as social origins and parental education, for instance.

Two opposing arguments emerged against the use of tests for selection and placement: on the one hand, it was argued that tests predicted future achievement with much better than chance accuracy and children and parents should not be subjected to this tyrrany or numbers; on the other hand, it was argued with equal fervour that the tests were not sufficiently good predictors to serve as selectors. More relevant arguments were that tests were over-used with consequent under-emphasis on social and affective functioning, that early selection limited educational and vocational options, and that psychologists could with advantage spend a greater portion of time on counselling and consultive work than on selection and classification based on testing.

Another outcome of selection and placement procedures based on _individual_ differences was a focus on _groups_ and _group differences_, arising from the observed correlates of test performance and achievement. This led to a focus on the special features which distinguished one group from another; the qualitative properties which received most attention tended to be deficiencies in achievement, mostly in academic achievement. Other characteristics of a group deficient in achievement, if they preceded the achievement deficit, were often assumed to be both causal influences as well as definitive: lack of opportunity, lack of "privilege", or disadvantage, however defined. Hence there arose a focus on under-privileged or disadvantaged groups.

The psychologists, who had instituted the procedure of classifying children on the basis of abilities and special educational needs, began to discuss replacing this rather static procedure with systems by which teachers, psychologists, and other interested parties could consult together to mutual advantage, whether the issue concerned an individual child or adult, a group of people, or some organisational matter. Task analysis and planning corrective procedures began to supplement diagnosis and selection in the daily work of educational psychologists in Australian schools of the 1970's. It is difficult to say how much change there has been in practice; change in orientation has been widely discussed.

The original phase of educational psychology had two aspects: (1) assessment, selection and placement, and (2) guidance. The first was directed to what happened to a child during the years that they attended school, the second to what they might best attempt to become in the future. The two aspects were educational and vocational; there was little room for manoeuvre, little attention given to any notion of career or personal development. An important tacit assumption was that most individuals, when they left school, would enter an employment category, i.e., job, trade, profession, and save for a few incorrigible "ne'er-do-wells", would stay in it, moving from one position to another within that category only for advancement. Fairly quick and radical changes, requiring new training or extensive retraining, were not thought likely in the career structure of most people. In fact, job nature is very likely to continue to change and job complexity will increase (Emery, et al., 1974). Educational psychologists can expect correlated changes in their own career structure. (1) Vocational guidance and career counselling will become a more important part of their work. (2) They will need to work more directly with schools, teachers, and employers in an endeavour to provide courses of education which leave open the greatest number of options to pupils and which will enable pupils to take maximum advantage of the range of work opportunities available.

Current Status and Training

In Australia the number of psychologists working in the schools does not favorably compare with the school psychologist of North America, save in a few private schools. Educational psychologists who work in school systems may have their place of work within the walls of a school or in some other location; their organisational structure will be independent of any particular school, so that within a state education department the body of psychologists is organisationally separate from the body of teachers, although the two groups work closely and fruitfully together. Educational psychologists also work in colleges and universities and in the Australian Council for Educational Research (A.C.E.R.).

Lively debate continues over the training that educational psychologists should receive for work in school systems. The minimum usually expected is that a person so engaged should have qualifications and experience which enable them to be recognised as a fellow professional by both psychologists and teachers. This usually implies teacher training recognised by some large employing authority and qualifications for membership in the Australian Psychological Society plus certain work experience. Only two Australian states require psychologists to register by law (Victoria and South Australia).

The demand for double qualifications (in psychology and in teaching) has both positive and negative aspects. Because of the sheer time needed for an individual to acquire two sets of training, someone who embarks on a career as an educational psychologist is likely to be a mature person. On the other hand, able and ambitious young psychologists and teachers are likely to move into work which will give them opportunities for quicker advancement than they would usually receive in educational psychology services; thus good people may be lost. A skillful and experienced teacher who is a trained educational psychologist can not only communicate effectively with children, teachers, and psychologists, but can also help all three groups to develop new skills and co-operative programs for mutual benefit.

As educational psychologists try to weigh up and find alternatives to their assessment and placement functions, they are having difficulty in defining their changing professional orientation. They favour such descriptions as "consultant", "agent for change", "innovator", and tend to speak highly of such notions as open classrooms, community schools, and individual progression. As corollaries, they cling to notions of social determination and they emphasise group influences rather than individual differences and their origins, verbally rejecting the testing movement even to the point of throwing out the baby with the bathwater. Not surprisingly, they have turned to other professions for aid, particularly to sociology and social work, in an attempt to acquire skills not provided in their original training.

An Australian undergraduate degree in psychology is made up of three years for a pass degree and four years for an honours degree. A major sequence in psychology occupies at least one-third of a student's work in a pass degree; the fourth or honours year is devoted entirely to psychology. Thus an Australian first degree in psychology is a substantial training in the discipline, but it is not usually a professional training. (The University of Western Australia provides a four year undergraduate pass degree in psychology which is oriented towards professional work; it is the only institution to do so until now. While this degree is useful training for people who wish to specialise later in educational pscyhology, it is not specifically concerned with educational psychology.) Table 3 summarizes the post graduate training programs in Australia.

Table 3

Post Graduate Training for Educational Psychologists in Australia: Course Work Programs

Prerequisite for entry: a degree from a recognised institution of higher learning and a sequence of three or four years study in psychology (institutions and programs vary somewhat in their requirements).

State	Institution	Length of Course	Award
New South Wales	State Education Department	1 yr.[1] FT	-
	Macquarie University	2 yr.[2] FT	M A [3]
	University of Newcastle	2 yr. FT	Dip.Psych[3] (Ed)
	University of New England		B Litt (Certain courses)
Queensland	State Education Department	1 yr.[1] FT	-
	University of Queensland	1 yr.[2] FT	Dip Ed Psych M Ed Stud
South Australia	State Education Department	1 yr.[1] PT	-
	University of Adelaide	1 yr.[2] FT	Dip App Psych[3]
Tasmania	State Education Department	6 mths.[1] PT	-
Victoria	State Education Department	3 yr.[1] PT	-
	Monash University	1 yr.[2] FT	Dip Ed Psych[3]
	Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology	2 yr. PT	Dip Ed.Counselling [3]
	University of Melbourne	2 yr.[2] FT	M Ed Psych
Western Australia	State Education Department	2 yr.[1] PT	-
	Western Australian Institute of Technology	1 yr.[2] FT	Grad Dip [3] Counselling Psych

FT: Full time

PT: Part-time

1: Inservice

2: Or equivalent period part-time

3: Accredited by the Australian Psychological Society (as of January, 1976)

Many educational psychologists, acutely aware of deficiencies in their training and of alternative ways of providing services, have worked very hard to establish new systems and relationships with their clients and have had a fair measure of success. A teaching role can most easily be justified if it is assumed that change can be brought about here and now by intervention in the existing order; that is, a social orientation has high face validity. The contributions of sociology and social work are therefore very valuable. However, unless due regard is given to differences in rate of change from one individual to another, to differences in nature of change as a function of both the same and different forms of intervention, and to questioning whether change as an end in itself is desirable, the orientation of educational psychologists towards acting as change agents may appear to have as many negative aspects as positive ones. The pendulum is now just beginning to swing away from emphasis on social determinants; it would be unfortunate if the valuable insights gained from that emphasis were not retained.

Needs for the Future

Educational psychologists need to evaluate areas of psychology which they have neglected and which have much to offer them in both research and application. They might begin by examining the following:

1. What are the skills which are necessary and sufficient for symbolic manipulation (including memory, pattern recognition, and analysis of combinations)? This is an active research area (Bryant, 1974; Nelson, 1973; Paivio, 1971; Vernon, 1971). Yet the application of this research to learning in reading or mathematics has been limited, although research findings suggest that the area has wide potential in developing the skills which young children need if they are to learn quickly the foundations of numeracy and literacy.
2. What are the relationships between design of work environments and human performance (including anthropometry and human engineering)? This area has been almost ignored in psychoeducational work save those gross and simplistic formulations of isolated principles that have been advanced in the course of its devel-

opment as a happy hunting ground for purveyors of expensive gimmickry such as: carpeted floors, elaborate visual aids, and glossy self-contained teaching packages. Yet the detailed work done in human psychoengineering has made little or no impact on the design or use of work areas in which learning i expected to occur. Teachers at any level or in any field of endeavour find it helpful to have learners who are interested, absorbed in their work, and more concerned about its outcomes than they are about testing the limits of tolerance of other members of the group. But even when this desirable situation obtains, there is a need to ensure that noise is minimal, furniture is suitable and comfortable, resource material is conveniently displayed or stored, and the work area is arranged to minimise distractions and maximise learning (see British Standard 3030, 1972).

3. What are the dimensions upon which individuals and groups differ; how should they be assessed; and what bases do they provide for prediction, facilitation, or prevention of behavioral outcomes? This, psychology's principal contribution to psychoeducational practice, has a great deal more yet to offer (e.g., Bersoff, 1973).
4. What are the characteristics and structures of interpersonal behaviour and group interaction, their theoretical and empirical bases? Rigorous evaluation of the extent to which theory and research in this area can inform educational psychology is sadly needed, although glib generalisations abound.

Summary

The development of educational psychology in Australia can be summarized in three phases: (1) assess and place; (2) here and now; (3) future competence. The first phase roughly corresponds with Dunnette's (1972) first stage of industrial psychology, in which individuals were tested and slotted into the educational and vocational positions which were considered most suitable for them. Educational psychology in this country is trying to drag itself out of this phase and into the second which emphasises human relationships, group processes, and group identities. The movement is characterised by much concern for particular groups and discussion of:

The critical years (usually meant to refer to the early years of life although little evidence is advanced that any given year is more critical than any other);

The disadvantaged (a term which can, at the whim of the speaker, be used to refer to any group whatsoever: girls, or boys, or the poor, or the lower classes, or the aborigines - but racial references are usually avoided),

Migrants (who may also or alternatively be described as disadvantaged despite evidence that in fact migrants as a group are managing quite well). (Taft and Goode, in press.)

This second phase compares with Dunnette's second and third stages in which emphasis is placed on service to government, human relations, and moral and social awareness, to the point of presenting children as cripples.

There are signs of a third phase dawning in which future shock will give way to greater emphasis on developing competence in individuals, in which psychologists will learn to make more judicious use of assessment techniques (e.g., Bersoff, 1973), and in which they will place less emphasis on vocational selection and training and more on helping schools and teachers to plan and implement learning programs which will facilitate career development and acceptance of the different world of the future.

Educational psychologists in Australia have a long way to go in getting ready to meet these needs. Perhaps their most urgent task is to adopt a highly critical and objective stance toward their discipline and their work institutions and a habit of examining the origins of procedures as well as their appropriateness for the job in hand.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN AMERICAN DEPENDENT SCHOOLS OVERSEAS

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Department of Defense (DOD) Schools

There are two types of American schools outside of the United States: DOD schools and international schools. DOD schools are maintained by the Department of Defense and are exclusively for dependents of employees of the U.S. government, for the most part military connected.

DOD schools are also operated at most bases or posts throughout the United States. Almost every base school includes kindergarten through grade six and a few maintain seventh and eighth grades. It is difficult for all but the largest bases to maintain a high school with a range of courses and programs equal to the public school system.

Prior to a recent move toward decentralization, DOD schools overseas were divided into three areas: Pacific, Atlantic-Mediterranean, and European. Each was separately administered.

The Air Force formerly had the responsibility for the schools in the Pacific with 26,692 students. This area did not include U.S. territories or protectorates. Most of these schools are located in Japan (including Okinawa), Korea, and the Philippines; it also formerly included Taiwan and Thailand. The Pacific Area is the geographical area in which the author is located, and so it is the one with which he has the most familiarity and will be referred to in more detail.

The Navy was responsible for the DOD schools in the Atlantic-Mediterranean area, which includes Newfoundland, Iceland, Bermuda, and Canada. The European area was the responsibility of the Army with schools in Spain, the Azores, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, West Germany, Italy, Turkey, Greece, and Iran.

The statistics summarized in Table 1 on school personnel in the European area provide a partial basis for generalizations on the type of services available throughout the DOD system. At the elementary level there are five psychologists. Dividing the approximate number of 2,500 regular classroom teachers by the number of psychologists gives the psy-

Table 1

Personnel Attached to the European Area DOD School System

Personnel	Elem.: K-6	Sec.: 7-12	Total: K-12
Administrators			
Teacher-Principals	41		41
Teacher-Assist. Principals	40	40	80
Pupil Personnel Services			
Psychologists	5	6	11
Social Workers	5	3	8
Speech Therapists	40.5		40.5
Counselors	69	109.5	178.5
Nurses	55	30	85
Teachers			
Classroom	2,513.5	1,771	4,284.5
Art	28		28
Music	54.5		54.5
Physical Education	32.5		32.5
Reading Improvement	77	29	106
Educable Mentally Retarded	41	26	67
Learning Disabled	61.5	4.5	66
English as a Second Language	1		1
Auxiliary			
Dormitory Counselors		63	63
Paraprofessionals	263	33.5	296.5
Junior ROTC		32	32
Work Study		12	12
Librarians	60	60	120

Statistics provided by United States Dependent Schools, European Region, APO New York, New York 09164.

chologist-classroom ratio of 1:500. Computing the same figure for special education teachers and classes (EMR, LD, ESL) gives a ratio of 1:21. Since these 5 elementary school level psychologists must service schools located in 11 countries all the way from the United Kingdom to Iran, there is the likelihood that some schools do not receive much service from these psycholgists. Certifying the children for special education classes would occupy all of the psychologist's time. Such a mammoth task would leave very little time for consultation with the special education teachers. It would appear unlikely that the psychologist could even scratch the surface of the consultation role for the 500 regular classrooms for which they might be considered responsible. Thus, the traditional role of the school psychologist is stifled by the sheer pressure of numbers.

There are 63 counselors assigned to separate DOD dormitory units; the large number of counselors make it clear that housing students and caring for them is a major project. As an example, international schools are extremely reluctant to accept boarding students because of the obvious social responsibilities that result. Drug usage and other social problems seem to increase when the students are separated from their families. The dormitory which operated in Ankara, Turkey, for example, was plagued with drug problems. Within a student dormitory setting, it would appear logical and reasonable that the psychologist provides counseling and consultation. Yet the psychologist, as a child advocate and as a proponent of mental health considerations, often offers solutions which are not considered expeditious by those in management positions. Thus, their involvement is considered too "expensive", "irrelevant", or "interfering". As a result, they are frequently bypassed in the disposition of cases.

In the Pacific area, on the other hand, there are 11 psychologists in the DOD schools. For their school population of approximately 27,000 there is a psychologist-student ratio of a little under 1:2,500. These psychologists for the most part have the advantage of consultative services with pediatricians and medical personnel of the military hospitals.

The DOD schools employ four full-time psychologists at Clark Air Force Base, which is about one hour's drive from Manila in the Republic of the Philippines. They work in a child guidance clinic connected with the base hospital rather than in the school and serve a student population of 6,701, with a psychologist-student ratio of 1:1,675. On Okinawa there are 3 psychologists for 7,915 students (which gives an approximate ratio of 1:2,600); in Japan there are 3 psychologists for 8,908 students (for a ratio of approximately 1:3,000), and in Korea there is one psychologist for 3,168 students.

Present information suggests that there are no DOD schools in South America, Central America, Africa, the Commonwealth countries, Australia, New Zealand, or any of those continental countries East of Iran. The DOD schools are maintained and centrally administered throughout the world by an office in Washington. The DOD school system was centralized on July 1, 1976 to provide a uniform curriculum and adminstrative structure. This facilitates adequate administration and accounting and makes it easier for students to transfer from one school to another within the system.

International Schools

American international schools accept both DOD dependents, American civilians, and students from other countries. However, they do not teach toward an international curriculum. These schools are American in style and are taught in English. The American independent schools are generally thought to be international because they offer an educational program in English rather than in the local language. Insofar as English is an international language, the label is appropriate.

They are also international in that they accept students from countries other than the host country. Frequently there are not enough students of another nationality to support the opening of an ethnic school. In many places, students of the host country are required to attend national schools, either public or private. Thus, the student body of the American school includes students from many countries. Many students, American as well as other nationalities, are the product of racially and/or ethnically mixed marriages. In that sense the American school is multi-national.

Most of the "foreign" students in Asian countries are of European background and are visually distinguishable from the nationals. They do not find it as easy to mix unnoticed in Asian society or schools as they may have in European countries. In some Asian areas, the international school is officially called the "foreign" schools. These and other sociological forces define the American schools as "miscellaneous" ones.

There is almost no chance for an American student to transfer to and succeed in an Asian local school. A youngster would have had to grow up in the culture and speak the language. Also, in some countries the youngster would also need to be a citizen of the country. In many countries American children are barred from attending local schools; local children in some instances are also barred from attending American schools.

It would be easier for American children to mix in European local schools because the majority of Americans are of European lineage. Furthermore, there are a number of non-American schools in Europe that could accomodate Americans. This is particularly the case in the United Kingdom and Switzerland. It is less true in the syllabus and examination-bound German schools.

A true international school prepares students for matriculation examinations in the schools of countries like France, Germany, and England or the colony-like or Commonwealth countries whose schools are based on the French, German, or British systems. The international school at the United Nations in New York is a true international school.

Some European companies, in anticipation of moving an employee's family overseas, will arrange for a student to attend classes at a local school in the language in which subjects will be taught at the receiving school. This softens the impact of the transfer to the new school. However, it does not prepare the youngster for the cultural differences in the educational system of the receiving school.

Those students in American schools overseas who do not have a proficiency in reading and writing English are often enrolled in a program of English as a Second Language (ESL). The student must demonstrate proficiency in English in order to gain access to the general schedule of classes. Thus, the school requires the student to adapt to an American system. For Oriental students coming from traditional local schools, a substantial adaptation is usually required; i.e., developing greater independence and self reliance, increased verbal responsiveness, more creative thinking, and less rote learning.

These international schools are private schools in that, for the most part, they depend upon tuition revenue and do not benefit from public grants. Though they are usually tax free, their faculty must pay income tax either to the host country or the United States or both. In some instances, in international schools where the enrollment includes a large percentage of DOD children, the faculty are able to acquire PX or Commissary privileges from the nearby military base. Although these schools frequently have APO mailing privileges for official school mail, the individual teacher generally does not have personal APO mailing privileges.

American international schools come under indirect control of the respective American Embassy and are subject to the general laws and customs of each host country. They exist in most capitals and in major cities of the world.

International schools in the Southeast Asia-Pacific area.

There are 46 American international schools in an area bounded by: South Korea and Japan in the North, Indonesia in the South (excluding Australia and New Zealand), New Guinea in the East, and Burma in the West. These international schools are loosely organized into the East Asia Regional Council of Overseas Schools (EARCOS). There are 19,601 students in EARCOS; 4,500 of them are sponsored by the DOD. They are situated in the following 11 countries: Burma, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan (including Okinawa), Korea, Malaysia, New Guinea, Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan (Republic of China), and Thailand.

Local schools in the Asia-Pacific area.

There are virtually no school psychologists or even school counselors in the public schools of these countries. Japan is an exception and great strides have also been made recently in the Republic of China. The situation is most bleak in Laos, Burma, Cambodia, and Viet Nam.

As was the case in the United States prior to the availability of school psychologists, much of the work for students with learning and behavior problems in local schools is done by teachers and administrators. In general, the special programs which are administered by the local schools are on a rudimentary level.

It is important to note that the majority of these schools use test scores and grades as criteria for matriculation in upper level schools and for certain courses of study. The students are not free to choose schools and there is usually not enough room for all who wish to attend. The criteria are well-established and publicly disclosed. Thus, the guidance function of schools is small. Because indigenous psychological tests are not sufficiently available, there is usually not much individual testing carried out. Furthermore, parents do not expect personal or family counseling to be done at school.

Number of psycholgists in EARCOS.

For the 19,601 EARCOS students there are 109 administrators, not including 5 full-time psychologists and an undetermined number of counselors. Only four schools employ full-time psychologists: the Taipei American School, the Hong Kong International School, the Singapore American School, and the Bangkok International School (which employs two psychologists). A total of only 6,689 students or 34.1% of the students in EARCOS are represented by these four schools. The schools directly employing psychologists have a mean enrollment of 1,722 and a range from 1,222 to 1,950 students. A psychologist-student ratio of approximately 1:1,350 students would be obtained if the total population of these five schools is divided by five psychologists.

Because of the tremendous distances involved, there is virtually no opportunity for psychologists to share services with smaller schools. Also, visa requirements are often quite troublesome and would interfere with a psychologist operating on a visiting basis. Therefore, computing a psychologist-student ratio for the entire EARCOS population is pointless. Many of the American schools without full-time psychologists contract for the occasional services of psychologists in the local community to perform psychological evaluations or to provide consultation.

The Problem of Isolation

Isolation is probably the greatest problem for the school and the school psychologist in an overseas area. Though it might seem incredible that such could be the case in such big cities as Hong Kong, Bangkok, Seoul, Singapore, or Taipei, such is the case and psychologists feel it keenly. This is particularly apparent to one who has studied and worked in the United States prior to coming overseas. Stateside he was accustomed to association meetings, readily available libraries, graduate schools of psychology and education, the popular press, and contacts with colleagues developed over the years. In this regard, the overseas school psychologist is not unlike the psychologist in remote regions of the continental United States, although, perhaps, the situation is more extreme.

All EARCOS psychologists have been trained in the United States, though for the most part, not in departments of school psychology. They typically belong to NASP and Division 16 of APA in approximately the same numbers as would be expected.

There is a great danger of getting into a rut. The overseas business community also recognizes this danger in their employees. They insist that they take home leave from every year to every four years in order to offset social as well as professional stagnation. This is also one of the reasons for the Military rotating its staff about every two years.

There is also the tendency to live a hedonistic existance overseas. Relative affluence, the tourist atmosphere, proximity to a "G.I." life-style, all contribute not only to differences in the clients, school, and community, but also to changes in the psychologists themselves. There is also the cultural shock that all but the very few international personalities must undergo. These pressures have idiosyncratic and unpredictable effects on the personal adjustment of the individual psychologist. (A more detailed discussion of these problems follows under "Problems for the Schools".)

Another form of the problem is the lack of professional library and research facilities within psychology or associated fields. It is difficult to review the literature when one is limited to one's personal journals. One is severely cut off from the research going on in Stateside psychology and education departments. Foreign schools are intent on upgrading local schools. Workshops and conferences are not available. Projects such as preparing this manuscript must be done without the benefit of adequate library and research facilities. All of these factors make it difficult for a school psychologist in an American international school to satisfy their professional growth needs.

Pacific Area Psychologists Association.

In the fall of 1972, the author recognized this problem and organized the Pacific Area Psychologists' Association (PAPA). It is primarily intended for American psychologists working with American-culture dependents in schools and hospitals in the Western Pacific-Southeast Asia area. PAPA is open to all psychologists of whatever nationality, academic training, or occupational setting.

The main purpose of PAPA is to provide communication between practicing psychologists who would otherwise be somewhat professionally isolated. It is intended to facilitate the effectiveness of these professionals in their various service settings. Because of the distance between psychologists, the organization would need to function with a minimum of officers and meetings and it would need to utilize the lines of communication and facilities already in operation.

Substantial moral support has been provided for PAPA by professionals and administrative leaders within the U.S. and the Pacific area (i.e., the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology). The central DOD office in Hawaii considered PAPA to be a very good idea but was unable to provide funds. The EARCOS and DOD psychologists endorsed PAPA and promised support. PAPA was able to meet during the 1973 and 1974 in-service programs at Taipei American School and to organize an in-service program there during 1974, but unfortunately has not been able to meet again since then. Members have been forced to be satisfied with correspondence and with the exchange of cassette tape recordings, due primarily to the cost of travel.

The In-service program in 1974 included an optometrist, a pediatrician, an otolaryngologist, 2 speech therapists, a PhD family counselor, 3 PhD psychologists, a computer programmer, a PhD educator, a military race relations officer, a transcendental meditation leader, an MA school psychologist, other educational specialists, and teachers. It brought together representatives from the Republic of China, Japan, and the Philippines. It was hailed as quite successful. However, PAPA has not gained momentum. Psychologists have never been included on the guest list or on the agenda with administrators at their annual EARCOS or DOD meetings. Educational organizations like EARCOS recognize the need of their administrators to meet but do not recognize the same need in the other professionals in their employ. This increases the psychological need of an isolated professional to return to the United States to be with colleagues. Psychologists have typically not been provided with any budget for organizing or attending conferences.

The use of APO mail has also been unsatisfactory, particularly from one APO facility to another. The mail often goes first to the States and then is returned to the Southeast Asia-Pacific area. Much APO mail has been returned by the Post Office to the sender for a variety of reasons, especially because individual members often do not have personal APO privileges. This situation interferes with many professional contacts and precludes some journal subscriptions. APO is superior to foreign mail but can be troublesome, since there are many restrictions on its use.

History

The school psychologist in the Southeast Asia-Pacific Area is a relative newcomer. With the increase in American military and business presence in the 1960's in this area of the world, the number of American schools increased. Few psychologists worked in the schools during the 1960's. The "high water mark" for psychologists has been during the 1970's; few, if any, will be hired in the 1980's if the current trends continue. It is noteworthy that the widespread pullout of military personnel has been paralleled by the business community leaving at about an equal rate.

Unfortunately, much of the funding for school psychologists was in response to crisis situations; e.g., the drug situation in Singapore and Bangkok and special education needs in Taipei and the Philippines. The psychologists fill different roles at the separate schools. Often this means a quick change of plans as the perceived needs or crises change. Often psychologists are unprepared for the specific role into which they are placed. This means a hasty review of what literature is available. Frequently, neither the school nor the psychologist have had experience with the newly identified need.

As an example of this, at one time the author was contacted by a committee of court officials headed by a local psychiatrist who were concerned about the rising incidence of drug-taking and glue-sniffing in the local population. The author advised them that the addition of a mustard derivative to glue in the United States quickly and substantailly had reduced the glue sniffing problem. The committee was interested in advising the government of such a possibility so that similar action could be taken locally.

The author was then pressed to produce the technical name and delineate the procedure for the glue additive. This was somewhat out of the author's line. Furthermore, without an adequate professional library there was no way to trace it down. Contacting the U.S. Embassy, however, elicited the name of the appropriate agency in Washington. A response from that agency included the wanted information and the author was able to advise the committee of court officials. (Incidentally, it eventually became a law that all glue on the local market has to have the mustard derivative.) It is ironic that the mustard derivative is manufactured in the Republic of China. This is a good example of a psychologist in an isolated area being asked to perform tasks for which they are not adequately prepared. This results in part from the fact that they must represent the entire field of psychology.

In many cases the regular programs of the schools also benefitted because the psychologist tried to fulfill the traditional role of the school psychologist. Often the regular school program received services without having to pay for them. Even more unfortunate is the situation caused by the removal of funds that had been provided to meet a particular crisis. Very often the regular program refuses to allocate funds to continue psychological services that once were separately funded.

The psychologist is often seduced into a new role by the prospect of a bright horizon, substantial funds to carry out new objectives, and the necessary time to pursue the objectives. Little do they realize that the project has only a year to run. Frequently, the psychologist must either court a funding agency or develop a rationale for a project through which funds can be secured. This means the survival of their job, although their job description would have to be changed.

Handicapped children or children with special needs traditionally receive help from the community because of the sincere desire of the public to provide for these children. It is also common for a school to welcome these programs because of the secondary uses that can be made of the equipment, budget, or personnel.

William Farling (1972), then Executive Director of the National Association of School Psychologists, in the School Psychology Digest, said:

> School psychologists have provided more and more service to general education without any support from the general education budget. It might be said that general education has been getting a "free frill". I submit that both the words "free" and "frill" must be assertively denounced in characterizing our role in general education and replaced in hard dollar support and a concept of integrality to the educational programs of all children (p.3).

If the psychologist suggests to the school that the specially approved funds not be an open fund from which the other departments of the school could freely draw, they are often considered to be a threat by their administrators. A great deal of criticism, some very personal, is likely to be heaped on the psychologist for such a professional stand, which further contributes to their isolation.

The problem of the school psychologist in an isolated or semi-isolated area can be remedied to some extent by itinerant, professional evaluative agencies and by increased budgets for attendance at psychological conferences, seminars, and workshops. It can also be remedied to some extent by the individual psychologist's identifying, developing, and organizing resources in the community.

During the 1973-74 school year, the author tried this by bringing together school administrators, school counselors, family service agency counselors, military doctors, representatives of the U.S. Embassy, leaders of local churches, etc. This move was heartily endorsed by the person who was serving as the American Deputy Charge of Mission and by everyone in attendance at a general meeting arranged by the author. However, the attempt at organization failed because there were no mechanics of communication, no support for someone to take charge, and no budget.

One of the psychologists at Bangkok International School participated in an informal group of mental health professionals which met regularly in order to facilitate cross-pollination of ideas and professional stimulation. They found the meetings to be most useful.

The psychologist, swamped by pressing school and/or local issues, easily loses sight of the larger field of psychology. It is easy to overlook the importance of organizing with other psychologists or updating one's professionalism. Attendance at seminars or conferences is subordinated to the task of solving the pressing local questions or problems. Superiors gauge effectiveness in terms of solutions to major pressing problems.

Problems for the Schools

DOD and international schools commonly face a long series of unique problems such as: (1) interracial marrriages, (2) living on the fringe of other societies, (3) problems associated with military family life, (4) being close to war, (5) proximity to drug-producing areas, (6) extreme mobility, (7) lack of traditional family-help agencies, (8) living in a society with exaggerated interface, (9) having relative affluence, and (10) differences in the roles of men and women in other cultures.

1. Interracial marriages. It is the author's impression that the incidence of interrracial marriages in an American community overseas exceeds the incidence in the continential U.S., where it occurs in less than four marriages per 1,000 (Carter & Glick, 1970). An overseas American community probably approximates the racial consitution of Hawaii, where 29% of professional people and 51% of non-farm laborers in 1968 were interracially married (Schmitt, 1971).

Interracial marriages overseas usually, but not always, also create a mixture of two cultures. Thus there is likely to be an even greater difference in living habits, attitudes toward marriage, and child rearing practices between the father and the mother. Thus, the family develops a less stable structure than their Stateside counterparts. Differences in native languages between husband and wife often interfere with communication and problem solving; language problems beget other problems.

There are other subtle undercurrents in interracial marriages. There is often unconsious or conscious rivalry for the cultural allegience of the child. Differences of opinion about living arrangements are frequently greater between the two sets of grandparents than between the husband and wife. Interference by the grandparents is likely to widen the gap and increase stress on an already brittle marriage.

There is some data to suggest that these interracial marriages are less stable than homogeneous marriages. The divorce rate in Hawaii for interracial marriages, for instance, during the 1952-1954 period was 30%, a greater rate than comparable homogeneous marriages (Cheng & Yamamura, 1957).

2. Living on the fringe of other societies. Persons coming overseas undergo various degrees of cultural shock, a complicated phenomenon that involves the whole gamut of human adjustment. Families coming from the States are initially struck by the lack of things which they have been used to: particularly television, professional sports, family outdoor recreation, American food, and durable products. Common adjustments are: increased reading, visiting with friends, sightseeing, and window shopping.

Often the family becomes closer because it must turn inward to satisfy its companionship needs. There is frequently an initial enthusiasm for the novelty of the entire experience, but this often gives way to friction and hostility. After a few months there is a peak of discomfort which sometimes prompts a desire to return to the U.S. Continuing to live overseas in a state of subjective discomfort is not always a sign of successful adjustment. Chronic maladjustment can occur without personal awareness.

American youngsters living in Asia who violate social codes are treated much more leniently by local nationals than these people would handle their own children. This is due not only to the human tendency to be more stringent upon one's own children than on someone else's children, but is also created by an aspect of Asian culture by which persons outside of one's family, in some situations, are treated with more respect. A guest is given more latitude than a member of the family. A foreign child might be considered cute for doing something which a local child would not dare to do and would be reprimanded for doing. Paradoxically, such tolerance often becomes an expression of passivity in the face of social conditions that should be corrected.

Frequently foreign youths are the subject of curiosity. Blonde children walking in a country where everyone has black hair, for example, are likely to have their hair stroked. Children quickly display their resentment for those who treat them this way and develop a prejudice for the "locals". Some sympathetic parents renege on their initial requirement that their children interact with the local culture. Other parents, however, continue to help their youngsters fit into the local culture and do not prevent them from taking on the behavioral characteristics of the cal population.

The situation is further complicated by the greater familiarity of American youths with the expression of hostile and aggressive verbal behavior in public. Asians would usually want to avoid a situation where there might be a loss of face either on their part or on the part of someone else. In the opinion of some non-Americans, the misbehavior of American youths is not surprising but typical of their culture. It could be that American youths sometimes behave poorly in conforming to social expectations.

There is also a factor which tends to work in the other direction. One is often coerced into conforming to local customs and mannerisms inasmuch as one's public conduct is natually conditioned by group factors. At times this generates stress and detracts from one's life satisfaction. Living outside of the confines of one's own culture while at the same time in the midst of a different culture affords a person the opportunity to choose the best of each one. These conditions can help them gain a perspective by which they can examine their own culture and can provide the opportunity to increase one's awareness of cultural differences. In this way a person begins to become sensitive to other cultures.

As an example, the author has seen, on occasion, local police that come to the school and warn both the students and the faculty that their hair is too long and that action will be taken against them if they do not get haircuts. Faculty members have also been stopped on the street and given the same treatment. Living under these conditions for an extended period of time brings about changes of which one may not be aware. Collectively these forces also bring about changes in the overall American community and its schools.

In other instances, an even more subtle process is in operation. Local police in many localities do not have jurisdiction over government sponsored and/or military personnel or their dependents. These individuals, particularly the youth, learn that local police will try to avoid a confrontation with them. Thus, they develop a sense of immunity which they have been known to flaunt.

3. Problems associated with military family life. Military families overseas are faced with substantially different conditions than either military families in the U.S. or American civilians overseas. Military families must adjust to life overseas even though the decision to travel was often the military's and not their own, which makes a big difference. Often they sign up for overseas duty without any interest in being "international". This is one reason why they frequently make no attempt to assimilate the local culture. The blow is softened somewhat by American products and conveniences on the base. For many, however, the bases become an oasis of Americanism to which they clutch desperately. The extreme value that Americans place on this oasis is reflected by the fact that American wives begrudge the local wives their facility privileges. This prejudice surfaces in a variety of ways.

The rationale for setting up a compound in which American products and services are exclusively available to government sponsored personnel and their families is robust. Such a system: (1) decreases the possibility of tensions between Americans and local nationals, (2) enhances security, (3) simplifies emergency procedures, (4) creates a familiar American atmosphere, and (5) controls the outflow of gold from the U.S. economy.

Yet there are a number of negative side effects to this system. Americans become isolated, narrow minded, and limited in their social circles. They sometimes become suspicious of the local culture and excessively dependent upon the compound.

According to an informal survey by the military base newspaper in Taipei, however, military wives on the whole do not resent being the dependents of their husbands. For every military wife who was dissatisfied with their conditions, there were 12 who were satisfied. They are not significantly upset by the fact that their husbands have greater authority to make purchases of some major items or that they are often required to fill out forms on which they must list their husband as their sponsor. It could be concluded that the overseas community is pre-woman's lib; it is probably better to label it as conservative or, if you will, old-fashioned. Since in what might be expected to be a disturbing situation there is no reaction, one could draw the conclusion that socially the overseas society lags behind.

There is very little opportunity for women overseas to gain employment; the "working wife" is not common. Fewer mothers in overseas families with children of school age are employed outside the home. In 1969 the Stateside percentages of working mothers was 60%, according to the U.S. Department of Labor (1969). Although comparable data are not available for the overseas community, many would agree that the percentage of working mothers is far less than 60%. Since most of the jobs on base and in the community are held by local nationals at a low rate of pay, those wives who want to work must settle for volunteer and honorary positions.

Alcoholism in varying degrees is one obvious response to this type of stress. The low price of liquor in duty-free shops available to military families makes liquor readily obtainable.

Data being collected in Taiwan on Army marriages indicate that it has the highest rate of divorce of all Army installations in the world. The rate has been computed at 38% by the Army command (this statistic does not necessarily apply to Navy, Air Force, or Marine marriages). Whereas the data does not indicate what caused the divorce, it does seem clear that there are, on the whole, a great many pressures on family life under the circumstances.

4. Being close to war. Being close to actual or potential war generates conditions which are different from the more benign circumstan-

ces Stateside, including the large military bases. For the children there are more problems than just having several varieties of condoms on the open shelves of the drugstore section of the PX or pornographic magazines with nude women on the covers on the magazine sales racks immediately adjacent to the comic book section.

The "rest and recuperation" establishments flourish in areas where active duty personnel spend their holidays. Adolescents could well be strongly influenced by an atmosphere in which they attend movies in close proximity to GI's in the company of bar girls, with their conspicuous life styles.

Girls find that the GI's and the proprieters welcome them. Boys find that their money can make purchases which they would likely be denied back home. Thus, these youngsters are introduced to adult experiences long before the majority of their Stateside counterparts. Perhaps these experiences surpass the maturity level of these youngsters as well as either the religious or societal structures that would normally tend to insure adequate psychological growth.

5. Proximity to drug producing areas. Being close to the areas where drugs are produced and/or extensively used makes it more difficult for the American overseas community to control the consumption of drugs in their members. Many American "tourists" travel in the summer to these areas for the specific purpose of buying drugs. They make a reputation for Americans. As a result, cab drivers and street hustlers seek out Americans as purchasers of their wares. This makes it that much easier for American students to become delinquent.

The areas of high drug production are also frequently areas of high drug consumption. According to an Associated Press release in The China Post (Taiwan, May 21, 1976) referring to a serialized article published in government newspapers in Rangoon, Burma, "Nearly half of Rangoon's youth use drugs, ranging from heroin to marijuana..."

On the other hand, it is not necessarily true that the drug situation for American youths is any worse overseas. In some places it is likely worse, but in other areas likely better. In places like Taiwan and South Korea where the governments are able to restrict drug trafficking, there is likely to be far less use of marijuana and heroin than in many areas of the States. It must also be kept in mind that the situation varies in different parts of the States.

6. Extreme mobility. Military and government sponsored families usually rotate from one duty station to another every two years. This is further complicated for school age children by the fact that rotations are scheduled throughout the year, not just at the end of the school year. This means that the average youngster does not stay with the same group for those entire two years. Similarly, when the teacher's mate is in the military, they will terminate when the rotation date comes, even though this does not correspond to the end of the school year. Thus, both the faculty and student body are stationed on a temporary basis. Very few families settle in a particular place overseas for the entirety of their children's educational careers.

Turnover for teachers and community leaders as well as one's personal friends is quite a problem for anyone living overseas. Those who survive overseas are perhaps those who have become accustomed to shallow attachments to others. On the other hand, they learn to make friends quickly; immediacy characterizes their life style.

When children begin to avoid the future and to suspend expectations for the present because they are certain to be uprooted within less than two years (indeed, to be uprooted in many ways until that time), they make little effort to defer gratification or to establish long range goals. Their time perspective and patterns of social organization become very limited. Their peer society becomes impoverished and immediate. It emphasizes immediacy and gratification of impulses. To adults their society appears useless and pointless.

With increased mobility the only lasting personalities in the child's life are siblings and parents, and vice versa. This increases the value of these relationships. It also increases the potential parents as models. Frequently, parents do not realize the importance of their roles as behavioral models in this situation.

Klewin (1974) has described the work of T. H. Holmes at the University of washington School of Medicine in Seattle, who states that the accumulation of 200 or more "life-change units" in a relatively short time span may result in greater disruption than an individual can withstand. According to the Holmes Social Readjustment Rating Scale, the family overseas would feel stress according to the following levels:

Event	Scale of Impact
Marital separation	65
Business readjustment	39
Change in living conditions	25
Revision of personal habits	24
Change in residence	20
Change in schools	20
Change in recreation	19
Change in social activities	18
Change in eating habits	15
	245

7. Lack of traditional family help agencies. Without the traditional family help agencies such as the department of children and family services, Catholic Charities, Lutheran Services, Jewish Family Services, and Community Chest, there are few supports for families in trouble. Military families are reluctant to accept help from the military hospital out of fear that there will be some record made in the husband's "jacket" (file) which might jeopardize his career. Thus, alcoholism, child abuse, and family neglect abound and fester. There are extremely few "action (telephone) lines" overseas to which a person can turn to receive help immediately and anonymously. The American community overseas is also devoid of surrogate parents in the form of shopkeepers, community leaders, former teachers, etc.

8. Living in a society with exaggerated interface. A military community overseas looks to its own members to fulfill roles in its informal social structures. These roles frequently vary from the typical hierarchical order; thus, there is likely to be interaction between superior and subordinate, professional and client, child and adult, etc. One tends to see the same faces grocery shopping as at the movies as at the cafeteria as at the church as at Little League, ad infinitum. Consequently, one does not effectively get away from the office, and com-

plete anonyminity is uncommon.

There are frequent complaints of excessive use of influence, nepotism, and conflict of interest. Friction in one sector of society is likely to spill over into another and is likely to hound the individual. Interaction in society is more anxiety-producing than in the more massed society Stateside. In anticipation of having to face a client or subordinate in society, perhaps those in control "pull their punches" when making decisions that could have negative consequences for the recipient.

The American military community overseas is similar to a small town but its interface is exaggerated and provides few ways to escape. One's ability to choose friends is limited. This increases dissatisfaction and creates more friction. When the society closes in on itself, it's ideas and interaction become incestual and reinforcing.

From another point of view, individuals in important positions come to have exaggerated influence on community morale and social processes. As examples, commanding officers (by their interpretation and enforcement of regulations) and chaplains(by the manner of their dispensing their offices) affect the community to a great extent.

This is often not the case for civilians who do not belong to a closed community. Their employers do not provide for them the facilities that the American government does for it's employees. However, these civilian employers give the salaries that are considered to be sufficiently compensatory.

9. Having relative affluence. Even the lowest ranking military family seems affluent in comparison to the average member in many local communities. Sometimes this "goes to the head" of the family just coming overseas. Americans, for example, are generally unaccustomed to having servants. Furthermore, the household servants want to do a good job and please their employers. In a setting of power and affluence, Americans frequently become overbearing, over-confident, and arrogant. In a short while the American family is living a very soft and hedonistic life. The lower prices of most commodities contribute to the tourist atmosphere and give the newcomers a sense of power. Frequently the children follow the adult lead and order servants around.

It is probably quite unhealthy psychologically for children to order adults around or to be able to easily hire the services of cab drivers and household help. Too often families cease requiring themselves and their children to do simple chores around the house that they could easily do, and did prior to coming overseas.

Economic conditions preclude regular good paying, parttime jobs. Babysitting is the chief means of earning money for students. Thus, young people find themselves with a great deal of leisure time. At the same time, they are frequently bored because they do not have the same recreational opportunities that they had in the States.

10. Differences in the roles of men and women in other countries. Part of the cultural shock for women coming overseas is the realization that the women in most countries of the world are less powerful, more subservient, less educated, and less knowledgeable about the world. Probably the wife is more powerful in America than in most societies. Her tastes are more sophisticated and she is likely to be more assertive.

Prostitution is more prevalent in many countries, particularly those close to conditions of war. There may or may not be a government effort to suppress it. The husband overseas can use these conditions as a threat and a means of power in the relationship, though this need not be explicitly verbalized.

It is very threatening to military wives to have their husbands assigned to temporary duty away from the family or for them to keep company with single military men, because there is a tendency around the world to allow to a single military man a freer life style. A wife has natural reasons for concern when her husband spends a "night out with the boys". If her husband needs to travel, the wife must both externally and internally deal with his absence. She may be better able to deal with the overt pressure (e.g., getting the children off to school) by herself than the covert one (e.g., resentment at his temporarily "abandoning" her).

A threat to the wife, and consequently to the marriage, is created by the fact that a man can feel powerful in a society in which women are more subservient. It is easier for him to establish a sexual relationship with a woman of this type of culture. In some instances there may also be tacit support from the local girl's family to pursue this relationship if it appears to offer benefits. Frequently the economic image of the American is positive, though there are likely to be cultural barriers.

Responses of the Schools

The school and its psychologist must deal with the youngsters and their families who live under these circumstances. Since different problems come out of this social context than is perhaps the case in the U.S., the role of the school psychologist is different. In view of the previous discussion, it is understandable that many students overseas manifest learning disabilities which are not "traditional". Moreover, their remediation must be tied to social processes which have aided their development and maintenance. Thus the psychologist must not only provide the routine psychological testing and consultation for the elementary school, but must also provide the student counseling and parent guidance for the middle school and high school. Parent guidance tends to blur into parent counseling and marital counseling. Often the schools must provide the family guidance and counseling that would otherwise be provided by family service agencies. The psychologist in such a setting frequently performs some of the functions of the traditional social worker. They must conceptualize what their role ought to be and try to carry out that role. It is unlikely that their accurate job description would be identical with that of any school psychologist in the U.S. or even with another school psychologist in this overseas system.

Advantages of Working Overseas

To offset the impression that the previous section is unnecessarily negative, it must be kept in mind that psychologists usually are assigned problems to solve. It is natural that they should attend to the problems of living overseas rather than to the advantages. The fact that the author is in his fifth consecutive year overseas attests to his and his family's perceptions of the preponderance of advantages over disadvantages.

A number of these professional advantages result for the working psychologist in an American school overseas, including:

1. Subjects include a wide age range.
2. Subjects come from many cultures.
3. Job duties are likely to reflect more of the general field of psychology.
4. Fewer institutional traditions determine the psychologist's actions.
5. Professional recognition is more likely.
6. Community gratitude is more apparent.
7. Research opportunities are greater.
8. Personal litigation is rare.

There are also a number of personal advantages that are likely to result. These would stem from the life style of the individual psychologist and/or their family, if they have one. They might include: (1) economic advantages, (2) scenic places to visit, (3) more free life style, (4) cultural education.

The Future

In the Southeast Asia-Pacific area the American presence built up very rapidly; unfortunately, it has also been taken away with the same speed. During the 1974-75 school year in the Southeast Asia area alone, at least five American schools have been closed due to political changes. More are predicted to be closed in the near future.

At the same time in Iran, for example, there was an increase in the number of American schools. With the discovery and development of oil fields and other industries there can be expected to be an increase in American schools in many parts of Southeast Asia and the Pacific.

With the rapid buildup of funds and quick assembly of educational structures there is the danger of putting into effect hastily and poorly designed educational programs. Furthermore, much time is consumed on building facilities at the expense of the delivery of services.

There is little opportunity or time to plan far ahead. Because budgets are often cut or changed in March or April for the following year, there is a "lame duck" condition for programs that are to be discontinued. Furthermore, not being able to anticipate the next year's program precludes planning very far into the future.

In the author's four years at the same school he has worked (for a number of reasons) under 4 superintendents, has had 4 elementary principals, 4 middle school principals, and 2 high school principals. The elementary counseling position in that time has been filled by 3 different people.

Realistically speaking, any psychologist working in overseas schools in this area in the future will need to diversify and to be quite flexible. As schools find it more difficult to afford the services of a psychologist, there will be increasing pressure for this profession to provide only those services which the school will support. Since teaching duties and counselor duties will be more in demand, it would appear that a background in teaching contains much survival value. The psychologist would preferably be a former teacher, not only to improve consultation skills but also to perform actual teacher functions, either in special education, remedial courses, or the humanities. The school psychologist will need to become more of a general psychologist than a clinical psychologist, psychometrist, or counseling psychologist. They will also need to be a teacher and an administrator.

By a parallel development many psychologists are finding themselves increasingly assuming the duties of guidance counselors. One of the full-time PAPA psychologists is officially hired as a counselor, even though she has a PhD. From the opposite side of the coin, in many of the schools guidance counselors attempt to fill the role of a school psychologist. They often use psychological tests with which they became acquainted at summer institutes to make diagnoses and do the counseling that otherwise a psychologist would do.

The psychologist must retain a service for which their profession has worked hard to develop the necessary expertise and proprietorship; i.e., psychological testing and evaluation. The psychologist has gained entry into the schools through psychological evaluations, particularly with special education youngsters. This should remain one of their fundamental contributions to the work of the school.

Educational psychologists have the task of helping administrators and teachers gear the educational materials to the needs of the students. There is frequently a basic assumption in the schools that the learner is culturally consonant with the texts and materials they are exposed to. Teachers have the never-ending task of overcoming the effects of this mistaken assumption in overseas schools. The psychologist needs to make a greater effort to relate to student groups that reflect student interests and are often, in effect, self-help groups; e.g., foreign student's clubs, Informal parent groups are also needed to help make the adjustment to life overseas. Parents need help in altering their family processes to fit their new circumstances and to personally adjust to these changes. The psychologist also needs to become known as a person who is helpful and knowledgeable in these areas.

In the future the school psychologist will need to become more of a general psychologist than a clinical psychologist, psychometrist, or counseling psychologist. They also will need to be scientists and administrators. The scientist-professional model advocated by the Clinical Psychology Division of the American Psycholocial Association at the Boulder Conference (Raimy, 1950) would seemingly be appropriate for school psychologists today with the reservation that school psychology interests should be substituted for clinical psychology interests. Since certification in no way guarantees either competence or the adequate application of the range of skills needed to be the only school psychologist in a school system or country, there is great need for experienced psychologists to have consultants available to them (Rosenfeld & Blanco, 1974). When the psychologist functions as a child advocate and offers solutions which are not considered expeditious by those in management positions, their involvement can easily be considered too expensive, irrelevant, or interfering. Those who disagree (either politically or philosophically) with certain ideas or practices only need to demonstrate that they are "too costly" or will "not solve the problem" immediately, to get rid of them.

Though these requirements would seemingly call for a PhD in Educational Psychology, the schools can hardly afford it. Solutions may come from a redirection of priorities by administrators in the area of psychological services. In order to survive, school psychologists will need to participate in this redirection.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN TAIWAN, REPUBLIC OF CHINA

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Introduction

Psychology has been applied in the school setting in Taiwan, the Republic of China, for a long time, especially in helping children with learning difficulties or maladjustment. But properly speaking, what is termed by other countries as "school psychology" does not exist in this country. Qualified psychologists have not been hired full time at any level of the school system, nor has there been any systematic use of a school psychological unit. However, school counselors with psychological training have been offering guidance and counseling service in most schools for a long time, especially at the secondary level. Guidance counseling has become a typical vocation for university psychology graduates to take up.

History

In the early 1960's, Taipei Child Guidance Clinic, which is affiliated with the National Taiwan University Hospital, began a project of implementing mental health programs in a few primary schools in Taipei Municipalities in order to help children with emotional problems. The first pilot class for the educable mentally retarded children in this country was established in a public primary school in Taipei with the help of this Clinic in 1962. Besides providing psychological testing and diagnosis for children who needed special education, psychologists in the Clinic also attended weekly case discussions and assisted teachers both in understanding problem behaviors and in finding solutions.

In 1968, the free and universal period of education in Taiwan was extended from six to nine years. Suddenly, students with all levels of intellectual ability began to be admitted into junior high schools. When this law first took effect, only 73% of the children between the ages of 12 and 15 entered junior high schools; by now the percentage has gone up to 87% and is still rising. The need for psychological service in junior high schools is felt more and more urgently. The schools were not ready to meet the needs of students with a wide range of intellectual potentials and with differing family backgrounds; consequently the students began to have adjustment problems. Under these circumstances, the school authorities set up three priorities:

1. To establish school guidance and counseling programs. Since the period of lower secondary education is the observation and orientation time in a school system, giving academic and vocational guidance to students based on their intellectual ability and aptitude becomes the main function of junior high schools.
2. To revise educational and psychological testing instruments in collaboration with university research institutes. With the support of the Ministry of Education, the Graduate Institute of Education in National Taiwan Normal University has published ten psychological and standard-achievement tests.
3. To establish special classes for the mentally retarded and to organize teacher training programs. Under this project, pre-service training lasting four to eight weeks has been offered to college graduates of psychology and educational psychology departments. Many persons have participated in these guidance and counseling programs and special education programs for mentally retarded in this country.

Since 1973 the Ministry of Education has initiated a project to provide psychological evaluation and guidance programs in senior high schools. Under this program, guidance and counseling units have been established in many high schools. College graduates with psychological training have been hired to do the counseling work. With the use of aptitude and other psychological tests, guidance and counseling has been provided to assist students in their orientation to classes and also in their academic career planning. Only a few high schools, however, have hired full time personnel to work in this capacity. In most other schools, teachers are assigned general counseling responsibilities and are called "teacher counselors".

It has been very difficult to provide guidance and counseling programs for the huge number of schools at the primary school level. Primary school teachers have traditionally been junior normal college graduates, while secondary school teachers are mainly normal university or university graduates with a bachelor degree. Counseling personnel with psychological training at the college level usually prefer jobs at the secondary level. For this and other reasons, school counseling programs are not very popular in primary schools except in a few municipal schools that have been carrying out school mental health programs. At the college level, mental health and counseling service has been provided by university professors in psychology departments or by psychiatrists working part time in the unit.

Training Programs for School Psychological Service Personnel

Of the 25 colleges and universities in this country, 3 have Educational Psychology Departments: The National Taiwan University, The National Chen Chi University, and The Chung Yuan Christian College of Science and Engineering; 2 have Educational Psychology Departments: The National Taiwan Normal University and The Catholic Fu-Jen University; and one, The Taiwan Provincial Changhwa College of Education, has a Guidance and Counseling Department and a Special Education Department. About 150 graduates of these departments will take part in school psychological and counseling programs throughout the country every year.

The Psychology Department in National Taiwan University was established in 1949. It has the longest history and has emphasized research in experimental psychology as well as testing and clinical psychology. The department also offers graduate programs leading to MS and PhD degrees. The Educational Psychology Department of the National Taiwan Normal University, which was founded in 1968, has contributed a great deal to the school psychological programs in this country. The Department is also directly in charge of the school guidance and counseling service for the junior high schools in the Taipei Municipal area. This service includes: preparing teachers in psychological testing and educational diagnosis, assigning college students as teacher aides to develop individual programs for problem students, and working on case studies. Workshops are given every year by the professors of the Psychology

Department in the neighboring junior high schools to assist teachers both to understand problem behaviors and to find possible solutions.

Research and experimental projects on school psychological programs have been carried out in the above mentioned universities and colleges. Education departments and graduate institutes of education also provide school psychology programs in their Educational Psychology section. Many of their graduates also participate in school guidance and counseling programs.

Research papers in school psychology have been published in the following periodicals: Psychological Testing, sponsored by the Chinese Association of Psychological Testing; Acta Psychologica Taiwanica, sponsored by the Department of Psychology in the National Taiwan University; Psychology and Education, sponsored by the Department of Educational Psychology in National Taiwan Normal University; and the Educational Research Bulletin of the Graduate Institute of Education in National Taiwan Normal University. The nine junior normal colleges also offer courses in educational psychology. Research papers and articles often appear in the publications of these colleges on the learning problems, emotional disturbance, and behavior problems of primary school students and on the psychology and education of exceptional children.

The Present Situation and Future Outlook of School Psychology in Taiwan, Republic of China

Ten years ago psychology in the school setting had not been accepted by the educators in Taiwan and was considered a luxury. Providing psychological counseling was part of the teacher's work. Today, however, nobody doubts the necessity of professional training for school psychological service personnel. Psychology Departments and Educational Psychology Departments in the universities and colleges are expanding every day to meet the needs of today's schools. Although most of their graduates become guidance counselors, the term "school psychologist" is becoming more widely accepted. In special schools, in observational centers for juvenile delinquents, and in a few high schools, full time personnel have been hired to provide psychological service. They are, at the minimum, college graduates with four years of professional training in either educational psychology or clinical psychology.

Recently a few private mental health and counseling centers have been founded in this country. One good example is the counseling center in the Catholic Tien Educational Center which offers psycholgical services for high school and college students. This privately owned Chinese Behavioral Science Corporation has published a series of psychological tests for use in primary and secondary schools. They not only provide testing instruments but also assist school teachers with problems encountered in their classroom teaching and in student counseling.

After first establishing guidance and counseling services at the secondary level, the educational authorities are beginning to emphasize similar programs in the primary schools. Counseling and psychoeducational service have been offered in quite a few urban primary schools.

Another well known program, sponsored by the China Youth Corps, is called "Mr. Chang's Psychological Service" and offers free counseling service to primary school and secondary school students with adjustment problems. "Mr. Chang" is just a general term. Actually 200 to 300 college students majoring in psychology, educational psychology, education, or social work are giving individual help to troubled children and teenagers under the supervision of professional psychologists and psychiatrists. This program has been carried out successfully throughout the country and has helped thousands of students.

We can expect a rapid increase of professional school psychologists in this country in the near future. Like many other countries, this country also suffers what Toffler termed "future shock" in this accelerated, changing world of ours. Students' adjustment problems will be more serious, the need for school psychological service will be more urgent, and school psychologists will certainly play a more important role in the educational system.

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APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY IN PAKISTAN

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The history of applied psychology in Pakistan as an established discipline dates back to the late 1950's when the Punjab University in Lahore took the initiative of starting a full fledged Department of Applied Psychology in addition to the psychology courses already offered in the federated colleges. But, the application of psychology in various fields of life is as old as Pakistan itself. After independence in 1947, there has been a clear diversification in the use of psychological knowledge. The inherited emphasis has been primarily on personnel selection in the Armed Forces as well as in the Civil Services and in the Colonial Indo-Pak subcontinent.

Within a decade, about six universities were offering courses in psychology at the post-graduate level, in addition to the graduate courses in most of the federated colleges of the universities. The main developments have been in three directions. The first one was that the Educational Psychology and Child Psychology courses began to constitute the core of teacher training programs at all the teacher training colleges. As a result of this, many Child Guidance Clinics came on the scene as integrated institutions within teacher training colleges. The Institute of Education and Research at the Punjab University in Lahore is a pioneering institution for training teachers at the Master's Level. This Institute has an Educational and Psychological Testing Center doing research in mental assessment and child development within a cultural context.

The second development has been in the field of Industrial Psychology with wider applications in business management. This development got its start from Army psychology which has been quite well established in this country in fitting the man to the job through effective selection and guidance. Many big banks and business houses do employ psychologists in their management as do many other industries. This is supported by in-service training programs in business education where Industrial Psychology courses are essential. Similarly, the undergraduate courses run by the Polytechnic Institutes do incorporate Industrial Psycology training.

The third line of development in determining the status of psychology in Pakistan has been in the field of Medical Psychology. The Neuro-Psychiatric Department of the Jinnah Postgraduate Medical Center in Karachi provides the necessary leadership by sponsoring various research projects in the study of mental retardation and many other mental health problems. Other medical colleges also combine courses in Abnormal Psychology and Medical Psychology in the final stages of their training programs for the medical doctors. The city of Lahore is privileged to have a Fountain House which is a multidisciplinary, pioneering posttreatment rehabilitation and probation center for the discharged Mental Hospital patients. In addition, other hospitals do employ psychologists for psychodiagnostic and rehabilitative work.

It is worth noting that the Federal Ministry of Education, Islamabad, has a broad based Tests Development and Research Unit where a former colleague of the author, Miss M. B. Ahmad, is very busy in developing local achievement tests and organizing Counseling and Guidance Programs at various levels. The Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education in Karachi has been pioneering such a program since the late 1960's and there have been many model Counseling and Guidance programs operating in various schools. The Directorate of Labor Welfare at Lahore has recently launched a program of Vocational Guidance. In the past the National Manpower Board has also been promoting such a program.

There has been a further breakthrough in the last two years when the Punjab University initiated a student Counseling Center under the able leadership of another colleague, Col. M. Zakaria. It is worth noticing that the Federal Secretary of Education and the Deputy Chief of the Planning Commission of Pakistan are both psychologists of good standing. The oldest tradition of psychology in this country comes from its application in the Army where much of the work is confidential. The Inter-Services Selection Board is well established in its use of selection procedures and psychological tests. In addition, Combat Zone Psychology is used for problems of motivation, morale, and other purposes and is very well practiced.

In the field of professional communication, seminars and conferences are held regularly. In August, 1973 the Universities Grant Commission sponsored a Seminar on Psychological Research in Pakistan which was held at the Department of Psychology at the University of Karachi. In March, 1975 the Sind Psychological Society held its annual meeting. The Pakistan Psychological Association held its first annual convention in Dacca in former East Pakistan. Its second meeting was held at the People's Open University in Islamabad from November 14-16, 1975. In the same year the Federal Ministry of Education, the Institute of Education and Research, and the Punjab University co-sponsored a National Seminar on Counseling and Guidance at Abbottabad which was attended by experts in Education, Psychology , and Testing. The Pakistan Journal of Psychology, which is edited by Hafeez Zaidi of the University of Karachi, has an International Editorial Board and is providing an effective communication media for psychologists. The Psychologist's Forum at Lahore is a dynamic group of enthusiastic psychologists who produce a newsletter called "The Psychologists".

In view of all of these developments, one can easily see the emerging trends in the practice of Psychology, with a greater emphasis on School Psychology and its wider application to the educational scene. This trend started in 1961 when the Government of Pakistan set up a Committee of Testing and Guidance for developing these programs. The greater emphasis on the application of Psychology to the educational scene can be even more clearly seen by analyzing the content of three recent publications coming out of Pakistan. The first was the June, 1975 issue of the Pakistan Journal of Psychology. Out of the seven articles in this issue, five dealt with topics related to learning, predictive validity of college entrance tests, repeated learning and recall, etc.

The second book, Zaide, H. (Ed.) Frontiers of Psychological Reasearch in Pakistan, was based on papers presented at the August, 1973 Seminar in Karachi. It presented the research trends from three leading Universities, i.e., Peshawar, Punjab, and Karachi. It identifies the considerable amount of research that is going on in such areas as: learning and frustration, problems of youth, student activism, adaptation of the Differential Aptitude Test Battery, the Otis Quick Scoring Test, construction of a personality inventory, achievement motivation, objective achievement tests, influence of TV on children, the distinction between intelligence and creativity, Raven's Progressive Matrices, and the Wallach-Kagan Creativity Test.

The third publication was the Abstracts of the Conference of the Sind Psychological Society held in March, 1975. The papers are predominantly on: achievement motivation, the extent of field dependence, the home adjustment of university students, child rearing practices, etc. With these publications showing the development of psychological knowledge and practice in Pakistan, one can forsee the future trends with a greater emphasis on Education, Testing, Measurement, and Guidance and Counseling.

with
contributions
by:

ARDILA, RUBEN: EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN LATIN AMERICA
ARNHOLD, WOLFGANG: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN WESTERN GERMANY
BERTHOLD, MICHAEL: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN AMERICAN DEPENDENT SCHOOLS OVERSEAS
GAUTHIER, GASTON: PSYCHOLOGY IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF FRENCH QUEBÉC
KUO, WEI-FAN: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN TAIWAN, REPUBLIC OF CHINA
JANZEN, HENRY: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY IN ENGLISH SPEAKING CANADA
LOWENSTEIN, L.F.: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY SERVICE IN BRITAIN
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